DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF A DEMANDS-RESOURCES MODEL FOR WORKING MOTHERS

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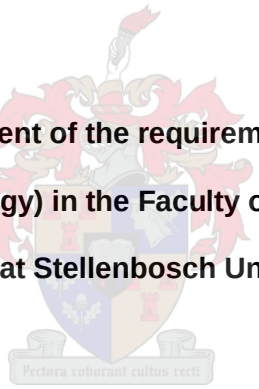

Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Commerce (Industrial Psychology) in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at Stellenbosch University

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DECLARATION

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ABSTRACT

Dramatic changes in the nature of the workforce and the family dynamics of traditional families have led to the alteration of organisations. Women are increasingly entering the job market and playing more prominent roles in many organisations, which is subsequently resulting in dual-career couples. This is disturbing the balance of work environments that are moving faster every day. Companies are expecting more from their employees in terms of increased focus, higher efficiency, and greater effectiveness. Subsequently, these expectations are putting pressure on the work-life balance of working mothers, and their ability to successfully balance multiple roles. Consequently, this trend drew the researcher's attention to the sample of working mothers.

The research initiating question asked why there is variance in work engagement, burnout and intention to quit amongst working mothers in South Africa. In an attempt to answer the research initiating question the main objective of this study was to develop and empirically test a structural model that explains the antecedents of variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers (based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model). This study aimed to identify the most significant antecedents of variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers. Additionally, it aimed to highlight the results and managerial implications of the research findings and recommend practical intervention strategies that can be implemented by organisations to increase work engagement, decrease the level of burnout, and decrease intention to quit amongst working mothers.

Substantive hypotheses were formulated in an attempt to evaluate the validity of the arguments put forward in the literature review. An *ex post facto* correlational design was used to test the substantive hypotheses. Non-probability convenience sampling was used to obtain the sample, which included 147 working mothers in South Africa. The variables in the proposed structural model were measured through an electronic questionnaire that contained

a number of measurement instruments (Utrecht Work Engagement Scale 9-item version (UWES-9); Revised Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS); Psychological Capital Questionnaire Self-Rated Version (PCQ-24); Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI); Survey Work-Home Interaction – Nijmegen (SWING); Role Overload Scale (ROS); Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-3) and was distributed on social media platforms such as Facebook and LinkedIn. Biographical information (age, province of current residence, marital status, highest level of education and number of dependents) was also obtained in the questionnaire.

Fifteen proposed hypotheses were tested and reported on through item analysis and partial least squares analysis (PLS). From the 15 hypotheses formulated, only eight were discovered to be statistically significant: specifically the relationship between burnout and work engagement; burnout and intention to quit; work engagement and intention to quit; role overload and burnout; negative Work-Home (WH)/Home-Work (HW) interaction and burnout; psychological capital and work engagement; job characteristics and work engagement; and the moderation effect of psychological capital on role overload and burnout. Of the seven statistically non-significant paths, six were moderating effects.

The findings of this research highlighted a number of aspects that influence work engagement, burnout and intention to quit. Based on the results obtained, potential interventions are suggested for human resource managers and industrial psychologists in an attempt to reduce the levels of burnout, increase work engagement, and lower working mothers' intention to quit their jobs.

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I would like to thank my sister who has been an inspiration to me in my academic career. On countless occasions, you have gone above and beyond what was expected and without you I would definitely not be where I am today.

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At the beginning of my academic journey, I never thought I would achieve any form of success. I constantly doubted myself and my abilities. I am proud to say that I have proved myself wrong. Through the guidance of my loved ones and hard work, I have achieved things beyond my wildest expectations.

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Dramatic changes to the nature of the workforce and family dynamics of traditional families have led to alterations in organisations. Previously, families consisted of a single earner or breadwinner who was stereotypically the male; they provided for the family while the female cared for the children and looked after their spouse (Łaba & Geldenhuys, 2018). This dynamic has evolved in recent times. Women are increasingly entering the job market and occupying senior positions in companies. This is resulting in dual-career couples.

This is disturbing the balance of work environments that are moving faster every day. Companies expect more from employees in terms of increased focus, higher efficiency, and improved effectiveness, which will all contribute to the long-running sustainability and success of the organisation (Łaba & Geldenhuys, 2018). All these factors are accumulating further pressure on employees' (especially women) work-life balance, and their ability to balance multiple roles. While women are becoming more entrenched in the workplace, the research surrounding their balance between work and home life is limited in the South African context (van Aarde & Mostert, 2008).

Nowadays most individual's lives consist of two salient factors, work and home, therefore there are bound to be consequences derived from their interaction. Studies that have investigated work-home interaction (WHI) and home-work interaction (HWI) have mainly focused on the conflict surrounding these interactions (Mohanty & Acharya, 2020). However, there are four possible dimensions to WHI/HWI, positive WHI, positive HWI, negative WHI and negative HWI (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014).

The interaction between work-to-home and home-to-work is becoming increasingly important to organisations as they are realising the positive outcomes of flexible work

arrangements on this interaction. These include attracting and retaining individuals with scarce skills, increasing employee motivation, satisfaction, effectiveness and efficiency, which all result in improved work engagement and productivity (Mohanty & Acharya, 2020).

Employers are increasingly expecting more from their employees; they are expecting them to adapt to all situations and for them to perform equally well in these various situations. However, employees are faced with social pressures and household situations that force them to choose between excelling in either their work environment or in the care of their families (Łaba & Geldenhuys, 2018). Some individuals do have the ability to simultaneously deal with their role demands from both work and family environments. The ability of an individual to balance the demands and resources available to them will result in a unique balance between work and family life, which will, in turn, create more engaged employees with the ability to perform optimally (Salmela-Aro & Upadyaya, 2018). On the contrary, some individuals do not have the ability to balance and cope with the various demands of work and personal life; subsequently decreasing their ability to engage and perform efficiently in their work environment and ultimately resulting in them leaving their job (Van Zyl, 2013).

A more diverse workforce is resulting in more employers having to introduce flexible workplace initiatives such as compressed workweeks, telecommuting, part-time employment and job sharing (Hill et al., 2008). Flexible workplace initiatives were originally directed at mothers with small children due to the stress that they faced upon returning to work after childbirth (Hill et al., 2008). However, due to the changing work-life needs, it has been integrated across the board for men and women at various life stages (Hill et al., 2008). Its value is found in reducing the stress and burnout of employees (Hill et al., 2008). Workplace flexibility is also found to reduce the home-to-work conflict and work-to-home conflict by allowing employees to stay home through telecommuting or compressed workweeks (Hill et al., 2008).

An increase in the implementation of flexible work arrangements has resulted in reduced conflict within the work-family interface (Hill et al., 2008). This result may be a

consequence of parents having sufficient time to attend to both the needs of their child and their work demands throughout the day. Workers with increased access to flexible work arrangements experienced significantly less interference between work and family life and had decreased levels of family-to-work conflict (Hill et al., 2008). Subsequently, this resulted in decreased employee turnover due to the reduction in negative work-life interaction (Hill et al., 2008).

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

A large amount of research has highlighted the plight of working mothers and the negative outcomes that result from them having to succeed in multiple domains. The careers of women are often impacted by their home responsibilities which are generally of equal significance to them as their work responsibilities (Łaba & Geldenhuys, 2018). Additionally, studies have found that upon starting a family, women typically partake in more unpaid work than men (Łaba & Geldenhuys, 2018). According to Łaba & Geldenhuys (2018), women tend to disengage or quit their jobs when they view their roles at home (wife and/or mother) as incompatible with their work roles. This is especially noteworthy for South African women as South Africa has one of the highest levels of single women-headed households in Africa (Łaba & Geldenhuys, 2018).

However, as can be observed in society, there are working mothers that manage to achieve simultaneous success in multiple domains. Working mothers that have the resources available to succeed in multiple roles experience a sense of engagement and have no intention to leave their organisation. Conversely, those that are unable to deal with the demands from the different domains generally tend to experience burnout.

Burnout and stress have been increasingly recognised as the psychological difficulty resulting from the strain experienced in the work-family interface (Hill et al., 2008). Burnout is viewed as a state of mental and physical exhaustion that can be caused by a person's home life. Research has discovered that family-to-work conflict has resulted in burnout of employees

(Hill et al., 2008). This may be due to an individual having to fill multiple roles in home and work life and being put under increased pressure to perform well in both facets. Individuals could possibly feel different levels of stress and burnout at different life stages that involve greater or lesser strain resulting from fluctuating households or caregiving responsibilities. Working mothers that are experiencing burnout will exhaust their energy resources and lose their drive and dedication to work (Bakker & Costa, 2014). When coupled with homecare responsibilities, this can have dire consequences for working mothers.

Therefore, it is essential that organisations determine mitigating factors that can be addressed to prevent and reduce burnout amongst working mothers. Organisations should also assist working mothers in dealing with the high level of demands they face and assist them in juggling the multiple roles society requires them to fill. The aim of any well-structured organisation is to have psychologically connected employees that are enthusiastic about their roles and committed to providing high-quality work. Essentially, they require working mothers to be engaged, as engaged employees will be more capable of expressing themselves physically, cognitively and emotionally when performing their job.

Having engaged employees means that they will generally put a lot of effort into their work. Engagement can contribute to the psychological health of employees (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). According to Schaufeli et al. (2008), research has shown that engaged employees have more energy and self-efficacy and have a greater impact on events affecting their lives. As a result of their positive attitudes, engaged working mothers will be more equipped to deal with the challenges that they face in multiple facets of life. They will be more able to deal with the demands they face and the multiple roles in which they need to achieve. The drive and satisfaction that engaged working mothers get from achieving in multiple domains and roles will directly translate into decreased levels of intention to quit the company (Walsh et al., 2019). Numerous studies have shown positive organisational outcomes as a result of employees being engaged, such as lower turnover intention, job satisfaction and increased employee productivity (Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter, et al., 2008).

The intention of an employee to exit an organisation is an expression of actual turnover, in other words, an employee quitting their job. Intention to quit acts as a predictor of real turnover. Working mothers will quit their jobs when they feel they are unable to deal with the demands from the multiple domains in which they operate (Mustapha et al., 2010).

As a result, it is critical that organisations understand the ways in which working mothers can succeed in multiple domains. It is essential that organisations find ways to ensure that working mothers are fulfilled and engaged in order to prevent them from reluctantly leaving the organisation. It is important to understand these causal factors in order to address them and decrease the level of burnout experienced amongst working mothers and increase their engagement and thereby their productivity. Having employees leave an organisation reduces effectiveness and restricts them from achieving their goals (Mustapha et al., 2010). Positive changes within organisations will in all likelihood assist working mothers in decreasing their intention to quit and subsequently result in lower overall turnover rates. This study provides insight into a real issue facing working mothers and will prove useful in providing the necessary resources and information to ensure the well-being of working mothers and prevent their burnout.

1.3. RESEARCH INITIATING QUESTION

Considering the above-mentioned burdens facing working mothers, the following question can be asked; why do certain working mothers suffer from burnout while others do not and instead experience work engagement? Questions regarding what influences burnout and engagement have been extensively researched over the past two decades (e.g. Bakker et al., 2008; Hakanen et al., 2008; Wood et al., 2020). In an attempt to build on this research, the current study will explore factors that may influence the well-being of working mothers. In other words, the study will evaluate the factors that can modulate working mothers' work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit their organisations.

The research initiating question is:

"Why is there variance in work engagement, burnout and intention to quit amongst working mothers in South Africa?"

1.4. RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The main objective of this study was to develop and empirically test a structural model that explains the antecedents of variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers (based on the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model).

The research study aimed to:

- identify the most significant antecedents of variance in work engagement, burnout and intention to quit amongst working mothers;
- consequently, propose and test an explanatory structural model which encompasses work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit; and
- highlight the results and managerial implications of the research findings and recommend practical intervention strategies for organisations that could increase work engagement, decrease the level of burnout, and decrease intention to quit amongst working mothers.

1.5. DELIMITATION

The study aimed to ascertain the antecedents of work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit based on a literature review. Subsequently, participants were recruited through various social media platforms and were required to meet specific parameters in order to be eligible to participate in the study. The JD-R model was used as a framework to consider the effects of job and personal resources as well as job demands on employee engagement, burnout, and intention to quit. The proposed model and formulated hypotheses were tested.

Job crafting, which forms a part of the updated JD-R model was not included in this study. The researcher did not pay attention to sub-dimensions of the variables in the study, or to any hypotheses related to these sub-dimensions. The researcher focused on the JD-R model and the relationship between the different latent variables as a whole. Additionally, the

psychometric properties of the measurements were not altered within the study. For example, item deletion or manipulating datasets, using factor analysis or attendant strategies.

1.6. OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 provides background information on the research topic and details the research initiating question, the aim and the objectives of the study.

Chapter 2 encompasses a detailed literature study that addresses the theoretical objectives of the study. The significant latent variables within the study are clearly defined and elaborated on in line with recent academic literature.

Chapter 3 details the research methodology and design utilised to evaluate the structural model and hypotheses put forward.

Chapter 4 reports on the results achieved based on the statistical analysis that was completed.

Lastly, Chapter 5 concludes with the research findings, practical managerial implications at an individual and organisational level and culminates with the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The impact of work-home interference and its resultant effect on work engagement and burnout has been investigated previously in print media occupations (Montgomery et al., 2003). The experience of work engagement has also been investigated in regards to various aspects in employees' work environments and has been proposed to have many positive effects and outcomes for both the individuals and organisation's productivity and success (Bakker et al., 2008; Mostert & Rathbone, 2007). Since many organisations are aiming to maximise employee engagement and reduce burnout, it necessitates that these variables are investigated further in order to be completely understood. However, job demand and employee resources also need to be considered as they influence the work-home relationship.

A discussion regarding the various facets of work-home interaction will be covered below. The various job demands that an individual experiences and the resources available to them will be discussed and then broken down into their various components: the relationships between job demands and resources and its relationship with work-home interaction, work engagement and burnout will be analysed, and finally, a conceptual model presented.

2.2. WORK-LIFE BALANCE

Work-life balance is viewed as a harmonious relationship between an individual's work and non-work domains. Work-life balance has become a more prominent topic as a result of major changes in socio-economic conditions (Pawlicka et al., 2020). These changes include an increase in female employees, newer generations entering the workforce, and technological advances which have resulted in employees working additional hours irrespective of the consequences for their family lives, health, and general well-being (Pawlicka et al., 2020). Exposure to these excessive demands, stress, and pressure can result

in work-life interference, which is an imbalance between work and family domains. Work-life balance suggests a high level of role functioning and satisfaction, and a low level of work-non-work interference (Schieman et al., 2009).

2.3. WORK-HOME INTERACTION

The relationship between the work and home domains can be termed work-home interaction. Due to the two domains being interconnected, it may result in a positive or negative spillover (Pocock et al., 2007). Pocock et al. (2007) view work-home interaction as a multi-faceted concept that involves bi-directional influence between work and home, with both positive and negative facets. Role scarcity and role enhancement are evaluated in order to understand work-home and home-work interaction (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014).

When referring to role scarcity, it is viewed as a form of inter-role conflict that results from role pressures from an individual's work and family domains being incompatible (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). It is difficult for an individual to balance multiple roles with limited time and energy available. According to Rothmann and Baumann (2014), role enhancement implies that "fulfilling multiple roles may produce resources such as energy mobilisation, skill acquisition, and greater self-esteem that facilitates functioning in both domains". Essentially, this means that an individual's ability to successfully balance home and work domains will result in them being more motivated and energised, resulting in enhanced skill acquisition in both domains, thereby enabling them to feel more in control over their environments. In brief, the goal of work-life balance is to find an ideal balance between an individual's work and home roles.

According to Hill and Blunn (2018), there are four different dimensions of work-home and home-work interactions. The different dimensions consist of positive work-home interaction, for example, a satisfactory work environment; negative work-home interaction, for example, an insufficient salary and excessive workload; positive home-work interaction, for example, familial emotional support; and negative home-work interaction, for example, no support at home (Hill & Blunn, 2018). For example, if an individual receives no support from

their family, and they love their job, it may result in a negative home-work spillover. However, if they have support from their family, it can lead to positive home-work spillover (Hill & Blunn, 2018). This is also true for the reverse interaction effect. Having an unfavourable work environment can result in one experiencing negative work-home spillover, in which the negative attitudes and feelings from the work-life seep into the home life, and conversely having a favourable work environment can result in positive work-home spillover (Hill & Blunn, 2018). It is possible that through the development of one's skills in the work domain, the individual will begin optimally utilising their energy and time which will result in them increasing their productivity outside of work (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). This can be termed positive spillover or role enhancement (Grzywacz & Marks, 2000).

Work-home interference or imbalance is the perception that one domain negatively interferes with the responsibilities and expectations of other spheres that contend for an individual's finite time and energy resources (Schieman et al., 2009). Work-life imbalance or interference is closely related to the term work-family conflict and is defined as "a form of inter-role conflict in which role pressure from work and life, or non-work domains, are mutually incompatible" (Van Zyl, 2013, p. 18). Essentially, an individual's role within the work context is made more challenging by their family/life role or *vice versa*. Each role that an individual is required to fulfil has various responsibilities, obligations and commitments which require resources such as time, skills, energy and support systems (Van Zyl, 2013). The non-work sphere is commonly associated with family, however, an individual that does not have a family or dependents (i.e. children) does not necessarily translate into them not having life stressors and pressures to integrate work and non-work roles (Schieman et al., 2009). Therefore, home, family, and leisure domains are included under the broad framework of non-work (Schieman et al., 2009). When an imbalance is present between job resources and job demands, it can potentially result in work-life interference (Van Zyl, 2013).

It is important to identify the direction of the interference in order to ensure the correct implementation of intervention strategies. The interference has been identified as entailing two

related but different concepts, firstly, work interference with family (WIF), and secondly, family interference with work (FIW). Work interference with family can also be termed work-to-home conflict or work-home interference, and family interference with work can be referred to as family-to-work conflict or home-work interference (Van Zyl, 2013). Although interference can occur in both directions, the work-to-home direction is observed more frequently (Schieman et al., 2009).

Spillover can occur when experiences in one domain (e.g. home) affect experiences in another domain (e.g. work) (Hill & Blunn, 2018). The spillover effect of home-to-work occurs often, however, it is not as pronounced as the spillover from work-to-home (Schieman et al., 2009). This spillover effect can cause destruction in the individual's life that will eventually have severe consequences in the work domain. Hill and Blunn (2018) referred to the spillover as a crossover effect. It is known that the crossover effect pertaining to work-life balance was stronger for women than for men, due to the fact that women generally fulfil two roles of employee and homemaker whereas the homemaker role is not traditionally associated with men (Hill & Blunn, 2018).

An alternative definition provided by Rothmann and Baumann (2014) regarding work-family conflict is identifying it as an inter-role disagreement that results in strain due to the work and family domains being incompatible. Rothmann and Baumann (2014) identified three forms of work-family conflict, namely time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behaviour-based conflict. Time-based conflict is centred on the premise that work and family compete for a person's time, and time that is dedicated to one role cannot be dedicated to another (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). When an individual cannot adequately balance the time demands of both roles, this creates conflict as one or both of the roles do not get the attention that they require (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). Strain-based conflict is viewed as a form of tension, anxiety, fatigue, depression and/or irritability which is triggered by one domain, but consequently makes it more challenging to fulfil the needs of the other domain (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). Behaviour-based conflict is when an individual is expected to exhibit a

specific behaviour in one domain that is different from the other domain. When individuals struggle to alter their behaviour from one domain to another it can result in behaviour-based conflict (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014).

Grzywacs and Marks (2000) showed that having both resources at work, for example having autonomy in decision making and support from supervisors and colleagues, and resources at home, for example, support from a spouse, were linked with decreased levels of negative spillover and increased levels of positive spillover between work and family. Issues at work in the form of job demands and demands at home in the form of a disagreement with a spouse were linked with increased levels of negative spillover and decreased levels of positive spillover between work and family domains (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014).

The use of the JD-R model within the current study is detailed below. A graphical representation of the model is also provided in Figure 2.1.

2.4. THE JOB DEMANDS-RESOURCE (JD-R) MODEL AS A FRAMEWORK TO IDENTIFY CASUAL FACTORS OF WORK ENGAGEMENT, BURNOUT AND INTENTION TO QUIT

The assumption that is made through the JD-R model is that irrespective of the type of job, the psychosocial work characteristics can be branded into job resources and job demands (Hakanen, Schaufeli, et al., 2008). Job resources are referred to as the physical, psychological, social, or organisational facets of a job. They can decrease job demands and the related physiological and psychological costs and are functional in accomplishing work goals. Furthermore, these job resources encourage personal growth, learning, and development (Hakanen et al., 2008). Job resources may assist in providing extrinsic motivation to manage job demands and assist in achieving goals. Job demands are seen as demands that need continual physical and psychological attention and are as a result linked with particular physiological and/or psychological costs (Hakanen et al., 2008). The JD-R model was initially constructed to gain an understanding of the combination of job demands

and resources that are required to increase job-related well-being, which can be measured in terms of burnout and work engagement (Bakker, Lieke, et al., 2011).

Another assumption which is made in the implementation of the JD-R model is that job stressors/burnout develop when job demands, in the form of work overload and cognitive demands, are increased, whilst when job resources, in the form of autonomy and feedback, are scarce (Bakker et al., 2011). It has been revealed that jobs that are poorly designed jobs or job designed with excessively high demands will result in employees exhausting their mental and physical resources and subsequently result in fatigue and ill health for employees (Bakker et al., 2011). It is often hypothesised that job resources work as a buffer to quell the destructive impact of job demands on well-being (Lee et al., 2019). Multiple job and personal resources are involved in buffering various job demands. The characteristics of the job will have an impact on the job demands and resources that are required in different organisations (Bakker et al., 2011).

It has been shown that job resources are only effective in buffering against demands when the types of resources and demands are compatible (Bakker et al., 2011). For example, emotional resources are the only resources that can effectively assist in reducing the undesirable effects of emotional demands. The same is true for emotional and physical resources and their effects on reducing stress due to cognitive demands and physical workloads respectively.

Over the years, research conducted on the JD-R model resulted in the expansion of the model to include the consideration of personal resources (Baker & Demerouti, 2018). An employee's efficiency in modulating and controlling their environment, particularly when faced with challenges can be viewed as a personal resource (Hobfoll, Johnson, et al., 2003). Earlier studies have indicated that basal resources can further create more resources, for example, a supervisor’s support (job resource) in the work setting can assist in enhancing an employee’s self-esteem (personal resource) (Bakker et al., 2011). Having different resources available can thus assist the employee in functioning effectively in both the work and home domains.

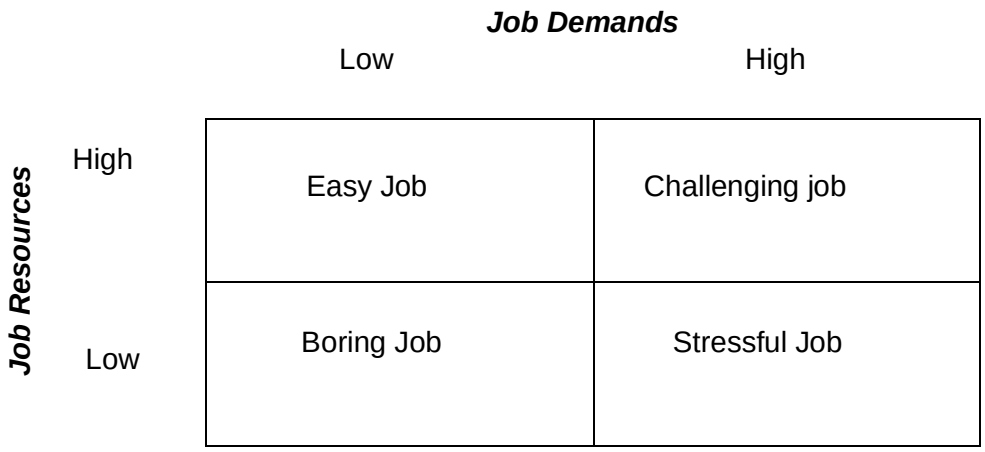
The JD-R model can identify an interaction effect between the two various underlying psychological processes. As illustrated in Figure 2.1, a job can be characterised by the demands and resources of which it is composed. A challenging job encompasses high job demands and resources, this results in both high amounts of strain and high motivation for the employee; a stressful job encompasses high job demands and low resources, this results in increased strain and decreased motivation for employees; an easy job contains low job demands and high job resources which results in low strain and high motivation; while a boring job contains low job demands and low job resources which result in the absence of strain and motivation (Du Preez, 2017; Jackson & Rothmann, 2005).

In the long-term, excessive job demands are related to fatigue, whereas insufficient job resources can lead to disengagement (Du preez, 2017). It is challenging for an individual to meet the demands of a job if the resources are insufficient. Continued demands without the necessary resources to act as a buffer may result in the individual experiencing symptoms of withdrawal (Du Preez, 2017). Consequently, the interaction between job demands and resources can lead to burnout (Du Preez, 2017). The literature clearly emphasises the importance of considering the interaction effect of job demands and resources (Du Preez, 2017).

The newly constructed JD-R model that was developed by Bakker and Demerouti (2018) was employed in the current study to determine the reason for the variance in working mothers' work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit. The model is flexible in its application as it can be applied to any job regardless of the industry. According to Hansez and Chmiel (2010), research has supported the model's versatility and the ability of job demands and resources to be connected to various organisational outcomes.

Figure 2.1

The Interaction Effects Between Job Demands and Job Resources



Note. Retrieved from "Work-related well-being of educators in a district of the North-West Province" by L. T. B. Jackson and S. Rothmann (2005). Perspectives in Education, 23, 107-122.

The JD-R model is an all-encompassing model pooling together positive and negative outcomes related to employee health and well-being (Demerouti & Bakker, 2011). The framework integrates multiple models related to the different outcomes, however, it also provides details on how an employee's working environment affects their health and commitment to the employer. The model proposes that job and personal resources aligned with specific job demands will bring about two distinctive but related processes (Mostert, Cronje, et al., 2006). Firstly, a motivational process takes place, where job resources are playing both an intrinsic and extrinsic motivational role that results in employees' increased motivation to increase engagement, work satisfaction, drive and job commitment (Bakker et al., 2014). Research has indicated that positive outcomes are usually negatively correlated with employee turnover intention. Conversely, the second process, which is a health impairment process involves de-energising. This process entails employees experiencing high demands which reduce their mental and physical resources, subsequently resulting in burnout and impairments in health (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004).

As represented above in Figure 2.1, job demands and resources will result in combined effects. It is likely that job demands exceed resources, and this encompasses both job and personal resources. According to Nell (2015), this phenomenon occurs when an individual's job demands are elevated, and their resources are insufficient to deal with the demands. It is possible that the work environment of the individual does not provide the necessary job resources to manage the demands effectively. Likewise, employees' can experience an inadequacy of personal resources to deal with their job demands (Nell, 2015). It is usually within the scenario of job demands exceeding resources that the individual will experience job strain, psychological costs and physiological costs such as burnout, work stress, absenteeism, turnover, fatigue and ill health (Nell, 2015). These negative outcomes materialise as a result of the individual's continued physiological and psychological effort to meet job demands, despite the lack of resources. High job demands will often result in exhaustion when accompanied by too few resources, which subsequently results in disengagement from work (Lee et al., 2019).

According to Nell (2015), another possibility is that job demands equal job resources. This is possible when there are adequate resources to meet the high demands that individuals experience. Nell (2015) states that individuals only use the resources available to them when job demands are high. Individuals are motivated to effectively use their resources when job demands are high. This fosters growth, development and learning for employees because they are able to mobilise other resources and adapt to challenges. Therefore, an optimal state will be achieved as a combination of high resources and demands can lead to engagement, happiness, and increased performance (Nell, 2015).

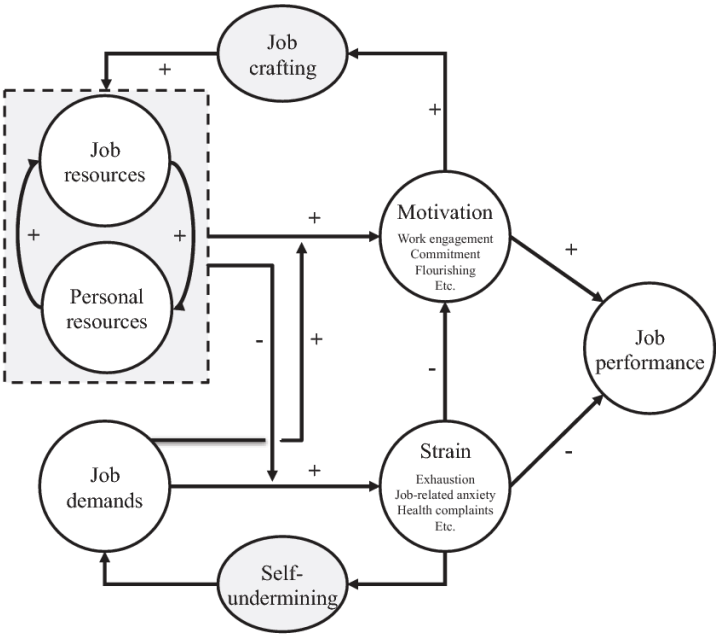
A final possibility is that job resources exceed demands. This is seen as an unfavourable position because without demands, there is a possibility that work becomes dull, unchallenging, and boring (Nell, 2015). In this situation employees may get the impression that they do not contribute to something significant and colleagues can likely cope in their absence. This can create a workplace that is unproductive and where employees lack

motivation. It is therefore essential to ensure that employees have a proportionate amount of resources and demands in order to keep them focused and engaged (Nell, 2015).

After reviewing a large amount of research backing the JD-R model, the latest model developed by Bakker and Demerouti (2018) (Figure 2.2) could reveal the experiences of working mothers. If working mothers have adequate personal and job resources available, it may result in positive motivational outcomes such as work engagement. Additionally, working mothers who have sufficient resources available to them will experience decreased levels of burnout, exhaustion and strain and will experience greater job satisfaction. Therefore, as a result of greater satisfaction, working mothers will also experience work engagement, which will not only result in greater productivity but also decrease their turnover intention and the overall turnover rate at their respective companies.

Figure 2.2

The Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model



Note. Retrieved from “Multiple levels in job demands-resources theory: Implications for employee well-being and performance” by A. B. Bakker and E. Demerouti (2018, in E. Diener, S. Oishi, & L. Tay (Eds.).

Therefore, it is vital that human resource professionals equip their employees with the required job and personal resources as a lack of resources could result in negative outcomes for organisations. Consequently, if these resources are provided it can lead to employees that can resist symptoms of burnout and it will assist in higher levels of engagement being experienced and decreased levels of intention to quit.

The dependent variables and the relevant antecedents of work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit, according to the JD-R model, will be discussed below in detail.

2.5. APPLICABLE LATENT VARIABLES

2.5.1. Work engagement

Work engagement is characterised by energy, involvement, and efficacy, which can be described as the opposite of burnout (Rothmann, 2003). Engaged employees are an important aspect of an organisation as engagement contributes to the psychological well-being of individuals within the workplace (Rothmann & Baumann, 2014). A positive correlation exists between engaged employees and less workplace absenteeism, better service presented to clients, and a contribution to the organisation's productivity and profitability (Rothmann et al., 2014). While research into employee engagement is being conducted in the United States and Europe, it is stressed that there is a great need to conduct research in other countries due to its importance in the workplace (Rothmann et al., 2014).

The concept of work engagement originally arose from research characterising burnout. Burnout and engagement are often viewed as occupying opposite ends of the spectrum of well-being. In contrast to burnout, employees that are engaged experience an energetic and effective connection with their role and believe that they can deal with the demands of their jobs. Over the years, there have been multiple definitions of engagement. Bakker (2011, p. 265) defined work engagement as "an active, positive work-related state that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption".

Employees that possess elevated levels of energy and resilience are described as displaying vigour. These individuals show enthusiasm to invest in their jobs, are persistent when facing challenges and are not exhausted easily (Bakker, 2011). Employees that show strong involvement in their work are said to display dedication and they are inspired and enthusiastic about what they accomplish at work. Lastly, absorption refers to an employee being completely and pleasantly absorbed in their work. This can be identified by the sensation that time moves quickly and the individual is unable to separate themselves from their job (Bakker, 2011). Importantly, displaying these three sub-components of work engagement does not suggest that the individual is addicted to work as these employees still enjoy completing activities outside of work. Additionally, they do not feel guilty or ashamed when not working (Schaufeli, Taris, et al., 2001).

It has been revealed that engaged employees are more likely to work harder toward organisational goals than disengaged employees (Macey, et al., 2009). According to Bakker (2011), there are four reasons why engaged employees outperform employees that are not engaged.

Firstly, it is believed that engaged employees feel more positive sensations such as enthusiasm and gratitude. Employees enjoy experiencing these emotions and will look for opportunities to feel these emotions. Fredrickson's Broaden and Build theory touches on how positive emotions momentarily broadens an individual's attention and thinking, which enables them to make higher-level connections (Fredrickson, 1998). Subsequently, employees that experience these positive emotions are able to deal with challenges better and seize opportunities more effectively. Secondly, research shows that employee engagement is more positively related to good employee health (Bakker, 2011). Improved health will in turn reduce absenteeism and improve organisational productivity.

Thirdly, engaged employees are more productive as they are able to produce their own personal and job resources. Bakker (2011) discovered that job and personal resources can positively modulate work engagement, which subsequently improves performance. Therefore,

the performance of engaged employees will mean the creation of their own resources which will result in further engagement and in doing so create a positive gain spiral. Lastly, research shows that engaged employees can share their engagement with fellow colleagues (Bakker, 2011). As a result of teamwork being a collaborative effort, it is likely that engaged employees will transfer their engagement to others, this can in turn indirectly improves team performance and promote organisational success (Bakker, 2011).

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2008), organisations often aspire to appoint engaged employees as they exhibit decreased levels of absenteeism and increased productivity and performance. Work engagement is now a key ideal for many businesses. Organisations have discovered that simply having healthy employees is not enough, they also require employees that are motivated to do their job (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

In conclusion, it has been shown that work engagement is a sought-after objective that organisations should assist working mothers to achieve and experience on a daily basis. According to Lieter and Bakker (2010), work engagement has shown to not only result in positive financial outcomes for organisations, however, it also improves the well-being of employees and decreases their intention to leave an organisation.

2.5.2. Burnout

Burnout is a reality that most organisations have to deal with. Burnout first came to light as a social burden, rather than a scholarly construct (Rothmann, 2003). With its progression and burnout becoming more apparent within the work environment, it shifted into academic circles. According to Rothmann (2003), burnout was originally linked to human services, where employees are involved in ‘people’ work, however, over time it was identified in all other occupational groups and professions. Exhaustion and reduced effectiveness have been identified as indicators of burnout (Rothmann, 2003). Three other tell-tale signs of burnout include distress (affective, cognitive, physical and behavioural), decreased motivation, and dysfunctional attitudes and behaviours at work (Rothmann, 2003). All of which could affect the workplace greatly through decreased effectiveness and efficiency.

As mentioned above, burnout was originally discovered within jobs that have a focus on human service. However, due to changing economic structures, burnout has become a serious human resource issue that influences employee performance and retention in multiple occupations (Smith, et al., 2020). Researchers previously believed that burnout was a personal experience that is best handled at an individual level (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). However, situational factors that affected individuals and contributed to their burnout were not considered in these studies. This reasoning is flawed as it considers the individual and not the individual within their different domains (Maslach, Schaufeli, et al., 2001). Maslach et al. (2001) suggest that the environment in which the individual finds themselves is more related to burnout than their personal factors. This point of view can be linked to working mothers and the multiple environments in which they are required to successfully operate.

Burnout can result in serious consequences for staff, clients and the institutions with which the individual interacts (Rothmann, 2003). The decline in the quality of care and service provided by staff can be a result of burnout (Rothman, 2003). It can also cause personal dysfunction through the increased use and abuse of alcohol and drugs, and increased marital and family issues (Rothmann, 2003). In addition, individuals that are in executive or managerial positions and are experiencing burnout could affect the organisation through the way in which they deal with the subordinates (Rothmann, 2003). Burnout can also affect a company by increasing the turnover of employees, increasing absenteeism, decreasing morale, and increasing job dissatisfaction (Rothman, 2003), all of which can lead to a dysfunctional and ineffective workplace.

There is a paucity of research investigating gender differences and the prevalence of burnout. The limited research that is available has revealed that working mothers are more likely to experience burnout in comparison to employed men and women who are not mothers (Robinson et al., 2016). The higher amount of overall demands for time and energy may mean working mothers are more at risk of burnout in comparison to other working populations (Robinson et al., 2016; Nomaguchi, 2012). Working mothers are expected to balance multiple

roles and operate well in all domains, which is often what leads to burnout. The higher levels of burnout will not only adversely affect the individual's immediate work environment but also their home functioning and child welfare (Robinson et al., 2016). According to Robinson et al. (2016), individuals with more resources such as support from supervisors and family members that assist either financially or with child care will be able to better exploit professional development opportunities and achieve a feeling of accomplishment from their work when compared with mothers who lack these resources. These resources act as a buffer and protect working mothers against burnout.

Subsequently, it is critical that managers understand their role in providing conditions and support to working mothers in an attempt to ensure they prevent the negative consequences of burnout. The inability of working mothers to operate effectively in multiple domains and roles results in them facing stressful and demanding situations which leaves them highly susceptible to experiencing burnout. It is difficult to suitably adjust the work and home environments of working mothers to be less stressful and demanding. Therefore, it is critical that organisations strive to provide sufficient resources to employees in order to help prevent them from experiencing burnout, which could ultimately lead to intention to leave their organisation.

2.5.3. Intention to quit

Employee turnover involves a three-step process. Firstly, the individual thinks of quitting their job, secondly, they intend to leave their current job, and lastly, they start searching for another job (Ajaz et al., 2015). According to Ajaz et al. (2015), intention to quit is an individual’s intention to quit their current job. Employees that have a high intention to quit are physically present at work, while their thoughts and focus are elsewhere (Balogun et al., 2013). When an employee is not mentally present at work, it can lead to decreased productivity and inefficiency (Balogun et al., 2013).

The turnover of employees is problematic as organisations invest significant amounts of money and time in training new employees in order to afford them the required resources

to function optimally in their job. The individual leaving the organisation will take with them what they have learned, resulting in the loss of these key skills and knowledge within the business. Additionally, employee turnover results in increased recruitment, selection, training costs and reduced competitive advantage (Balogun et al., 2013). The failure of employees to stay at companies for longer periods of time results in a lower return on investment for employers (Balogun et al., 2013).

The reason why it is essential to study intention to quit instead of actual turnover is due to it being more beneficial as employers are able to detect intention to quit in advance allowing them to take action and prevent employees from leaving the organisation. According to Balogun et al. (2013), multiple factors including characteristics (e.g. workload and social support), attitudes (e.g. work commitment and job satisfaction), personality and demographic factors (e.g. age, gender, marital status and emotional intelligence) have been identified as antecedents of turnover intention amongst employees.

Importantly, there are instances when the same resources have been made available to different individuals, yet it did not necessarily result in them experiencing similar levels of work engagement, burnout and intention to quit their organisation. This is because other factors also play an important role in understanding work engagement, burnout and intention to quit. Therefore, to better understand what causes working mothers to experience varying levels of these three states, the focus should be placed on the job demands and resources available to working mothers. The JD-R model provides a suitable framework for identifying how well-being and motivation may differ amongst working mothers.

2.5.4. Role overload and negative work-home/home-work interaction as critical job demands for working mothers

As mentioned previously, job demands are seen as demands that necessitate continual physical and psychological costs which as a result, are linked with various physiological and/or psychological burdens (Hakanen et al., 2008). The JD-R model suggests that high demands increase work-home interference can by the expenditure of personal

resources like energy, emotional stores, and time (Hakanen et al., 2008). Different forms of job demands include cognitive demands, emotional demands and work overload, all of which increase work-home interference (Hakanen et al., 2008). Work overload is characterised by an employee experiencing an excess of tasks to complete in a limited time. Emotional demands are viewed as issues experienced at work that are emotionally draining and affect the employee personally (Hakanen et al., 2008). Cognitive demands include tasks that require a lot of concentration from the employee (Hakanen et al., 2008).

There are many scientific studies that list various job demands. Schaufeli (2017) separated job demands into qualitative, quantitative and organisational demands. Qualitative job demands include emotional, mental, physical as well as work-home conflict. Quantitative job demands encompass work over-underload and rate of change. Finally, organisational demands comprise of negative change, bureaucracy, harassment, role conflict and interpersonal conflict. However, for the purpose of this research study, role overload, and negative work-home/home-work interaction will be the job demands investigated.

2.5.4.1. Role overload as a critical job demand

Role overload is viewed as a time-based type of stress. It can arise due to the individual having one or more roles that are so large that the time and energy resources available are inadequate to satisfy the roles (Halinski, Duxbury, et al., 2020). When an individual is unable to perform their work roles comfortably due to their work demands exceeding their individual capability and resources, it can be described as role overload (Nasurdin & O'Driscoll, 2012). Karatepe (2013) described role overload as the perception of having many work-role demands, and the feeling that there is insufficient time to complete all of their required tasks. Overload will transition into a stressor once the employee feels that they have too many responsibilities or tasks in a given period (Karatepe, 2013).

Role overload can also originate from having too many expectations of your work and home environments. This can cause stress in both domains, resulting in individuals

questioning whether they can meet their substantial obligations (Davis, 2020). Role overload can be viewed as an individual having work demands and home demands. Home demands can originate from individuals having caregiving responsibilities, while work demands are the pressures experienced at work in terms of deadlines and responsibilities. While having a spouse or partner at home may be viewed as a resource, it can also be viewed as a demand, particularly if their employment or emotional availability adds to the physical and mental time devoted to tasks in the family life (Davies, 2020).

As the South African economy continues to stumble and many organisations within the country shrink their workforces, the surviving employees take on the work of those individuals that have left. The remaining employees are placed under increasing strain and have to meet higher expectations (Andrews & Kacmar, 2014)**.** Once the amount of work is increased to an unmanageable proportion and the individual does not possess the necessary resources to cope, they will be experiencing work and role overload. When the role overload is too great, it can result in maladaptive coping strategies to deal with the overload (Halinski et al., 2020). According to Halinski et al. (2020), these maladaptive strategies have the potential to negatively impact employee well-being.

In conclusion, working mothers will experience role overload when they have multiple tasks and responsibilities and not enough time and energy to deal with these demands. Typically, ordinary job demands such as time pressure are not negative, however, once these demands exceed the individual's capabilities, they may feel stressed out and uncomfortable (Balogun et al., 2013). This will eventually turn into a stressor and affect their well-being if they do not possess adequate resources to handle these demands. If working mothers do not have access to resources proportionate to their demands, the experience of role overload may result in the individual experiencing burnout and affect their ability to engage in their job.

2.5.4.2. Negative work-home/home-work interaction

The negative interaction between work and home domains refers to the extent to which participation in one domain will negatively influence participation in another domain (Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). Two scenarios can occur in negative interaction or interference: firstly work-to-home interference, and secondly home-to-work interference. Work overload is a common occurrence in workplaces around South Africa, furthermore, many women face role overload due to their responsibilities within the two domains. This can easily result in a negative bi-directional effect between work and home. Negative work-home interference occurs due to negative load reactions that accumulate at work and affect an individual's functioning at home (Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). Conversely, negative home-work interference refers to negative load reactions that are established at home that affect an employee's work performance (Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008)**.**

Working mothers are faced with two central domains, namely work and home. Due to societal norms, women will typically experience more responsibilities in the home domain when compared to their partner/spouse. Working mothers are becoming increasingly concerned with handling the conflict experienced in meeting the opposing demands of both domains. Unsurprisingly, demands from work and home are not in agreement. There is a tendency for working mothers to experience increased health risks, decreased levels of job performance, and increased levels of withdrawal behaviour when faced with high levels of conflict between the domains (Van Aarde & Mostert, 2008).

There are a number of workplace policies that organisations put in place to curb the harmful effects of work and home interacting with each other. These policies are often positioned towards working mothers, however, have been shown to be ineffective in their desired pursuit of reducing burnout. Therefore, research plays a pivotal role in understanding how the interaction between work and home affects working mothers' levels of burnout, engagement and intention to quit. Negative WH/HW interactions decrease well-being through the depletion of mental resources and the high psychological strain experienced (van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). This statement aligns with the Effort-Recovery theory mentioned below.

The Effort-Recovery (E-R) model is utilised as a theoretical standpoint in defining and measuring work-home interaction (van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). According to van Aarde and Mostert (2008), the E-R model was constructed to improve and increase the current understanding of work-home interaction. The E-R model is based on the premise that our task performance at work is based on specific load reactions, which include psychological, behavioural, and subjective responses that build up in the individual (van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). Generally, the load reactions that the individual experiences can be reversed if recovery occurs after effort is expended. Therefore, if an individual has adequate recovery after experiencing high demands, they will not suffer unwanted side effects (van Aarde & Mostert, 2008). Alternatively, when employees do not recover from effort expenditure, they will not function optimally when faced with subsequent demands. Negative load reactions can occur as a result of a lack of recovery time, which in turn, can result in negative spillover into other domains. As a result, the lack of recovery and negative spillover can be termed negative WH/HW interaction. Over the long term, continued high demands coupled with insufficient recovery may result in health-related issues and could become irreversible (van Aarde & Mostert, 2008).

A thorough investigation of these variables could be beneficial to organisations as understanding the high level of demands from both domains and finding the relevant resources for working mothers to cope with these demands may result in reduced burnout and a decrease in working mother's intention to quit.

2.5.5. Psychological capital as a critical personal resources for working mothers

Personal resources are defined as "positive self-evaluations that are linked to resiliency and refer to an individual's sense of ability to control and impact upon their environment successfully" (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, et al., 2009, p. 236). Personal resources are therefore seen as useful in achieving goals, as they protect the individual from threats and the resultant psychological and physiological costs, and assist in stimulating personal growth and development (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Research has indicated that there is a strong

relationship between positive self-evaluations and different aspects of work-related well-being, for example, job satisfaction (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Additionally, studies have shown a significant relationship between personal resources and work engagement and job performance (Nell, 2015). However, personal resources are known to differ between people, and can even fluctuate within a person (Nell, 2015). This means that every individual is unique in terms of their personal resources, and should be treated as such.

Through the expansion of the JD-R model to include personal resources, the model is now able to explain work-related health and well-being more comprehensively in comparison to other models (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). It not only considers the interaction between job demands and job resources in isolation, but it includes an individual's standing on specific personal resources that assist in explaining organisational well-being (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). When job resources and personal resources are combined, it encourages personal growth, development and learning, and allows an employee to utilise other resources more efficiently (Nell, 2015). Therefore, personal resources can be viewed as not only intrinsically valuable but valuable in the sense that they allow the individual to better utilise work-related resources in their work environment (Nell, 2015).

The personal resources that will be further investigated are self-efficacy, resilience, hope and optimism. These personal resources can be viewed as personal characteristics that an individual possesses.

2.5.5.1. Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is an individual's belief that they have the ability to satisfy the demands facing them in various contexts (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Self-efficacy can be explained as "an individual's conviction or confidence in their own abilities to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources and course of action needed to successfully execute a specific task within a given context" (Nell, 2015; Stajkvic & Luthans, 1998, p. 66). Therefore, self-efficacy affects

the way in which employees feel, think, and act on the basis of self-evaluation of their resources and drive to act (Nell, 2015).

There are two interacting factors that play a role in the early development of self-efficacy (Nell, 2015). Firstly, the establishment of one's ability to engage in symbolic thoughts, which include self-observation, self-reflection, and the capacity to understand cause and effect relationships (Nell, 2015). Secondly, the responsiveness of the environment aids in the development of self-efficacy (Nell, 2015). Responsive environments facilitate an understanding of efficacy beliefs, while unresponsive environments inhibit this development (Nell, 2015).

The work-related outcomes of self-efficacy are its ability to alter job attitudes, participation, creativity, moral and ethical decision making, career decision making, leadership efficacy, learning and work performance (Nell, 2015; Luthans & Youssef, 2007). Literature has distinguished between two types of self-efficacy, specific and general. Specific self-efficacy refers to a certain task, and general self-efficacy is more global (Nell, 2015).

2.5.5.2. Resilience

Resilience can be defined as “the capacity to rebound or bounce back from adversity, conflict, failure, positive events, progress and increased responsibility” (Nell, 2015; Luthans & Youssef, 2007, p. 33). Resilience is made up of proactive and reactive dimensions (Nell, 2015). Proactive resilience enables an individual to view setbacks as opportunities to develop, learn and grow. It also promotes discrepancy creation in order for the individual to create new goals based on their previous setbacks (Nell, 2015). Reactive resilience acknowledges potential setbacks, trauma, or even positive outcomes that could be overwhelming and therefore require the need to bounce back (Nell, 2015).

Individuals that are resilient are not resistant to the effects of negative events, rather they accept the facts have strong values and beliefs and have intrinsic mechanisms enabling the adaptation to unforeseen circumstances (Nell, 2015). These mechanisms provide the

individual with the ability to be creative and flexible towards the accomplishment of personally and organisationally meaningful goals (Nell, 2015). Work-related outcomes of resilience include work happiness, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment (Nell, 2015).

The resilience construct can be taught and developed through relevant interventions (Nell, 2015). Masten and Reed (2002), suggest that resilience is built through varied strategies; firstly, through strategies that are asset-focused, which involves improving an individual's asset inventory to increase their chance of success, for example, their skills, knowledge, abilities and social support; secondly, risk focus strategies which teach an individual how to correctly utilise their resources to effectively deal with risks; and thirdly, process-focused strategies, which build an individual's coping mechanisms in order for them to correctly utilise the assets available to overcome hardships.

2.5.5.3. Hope

Hope cannot simply be defined as an aspirational attitude when referring to it as a component of positive psychological capital (PsyCap) (Kim et al., 2017). According to Kim et al. (2017, p. 662), hope is a "positive motivational state that is based on interactively derived sense of successful (1) agency (goal-directed energy) and (2) pathways (planning to meet goals)." Hope is said to include three primary components: (1) goals, which assumes that human behaviour is goal-directed; (2) pathway thinking, a process whereby individuals believe they are capable of producing feasible routes to a desired goal; (3) agency thinking which is a motivational element that assists the individual in using self-reflecting thoughts to assist them in choosing a pathway and subsequently moving along it (Herbert, 2011).

Hope assists in creating the desire to succeed and the ability identify, transform, and pursue their goals (Nel, 2015; Snyder, 2000). Individuals that have low levels of hope will give up on achieving their goals and enter into a negative space, alternatively, individuals high in hope are able to create alternative ideas to their goals in spite of the difficulties they encounter (Nel, 2015). Currently, very few studies explore the influence of hope within organisations

(Herbert, 2011; Luthans et al., 2007). Research conducted has shown that managers who possess a high level of hope have increased levels of work performance as well as lower turnover and more satisfied employees (Herbert, 2011; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Furthermore, research has shown a relationship between hope, job satisfaction, and organisational commitment (Herbert, 2011).

2.5.5.4. Optimism

In layman's terms, optimists have a positive outlook on life and expect good things to happen, while pessimists expect the worst in most, if not every situation. Optimism is known as the tendency to believe that one will experience good outcomes in life and is related to increased levels of organisational well-being (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Optimists have the ability to deal better with threatening situations through utilising active coping strategies and therefore have the ability to adapt well to situations in the workplace (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Luthons and Youssef (2007, p. 547) define optimism as "those who make internal, stable, and global attributions regarding positive events and those who attribute external, unstable, and specific reason for negative events". Optimism is used to explain the positive and negative events that happen in an individual's environment. Positive events are credited to internal reasons and negative events are ascribed to external reasons (Nell, 2015). Despite the obstacles they face, optimists remain due to their attribution of negative events to external causes (Nell, 2015).

Optimism is a goal-based construct and holds considerable worth, particularly when it relates to significant outcomes (Nell, 2015; Scheier & Carver, 1985). Research has revealed that optimism is hereditary yet it is argued that while it does have some form of hereditability, it is still not understood whether optimism is a component of an individual's temperament or if it is inherited (Nell, 2015). Optimism is related to extraversion and emotional stability which

are identified as having hereditary influences (Nell, 2015; Scheier et al., 1994). Optimism is also known to develop in childhood experiences (Nell, 2015).

There is an extensive range of positive outcomes derived from optimism such as recovery, well-being and physical and psychological health (Nell, 2015). Optimism is also associated with performance outcomes in various life domains, especially in the workplace (Nell, 2015).

According to Leiter and Bakker (2010), psychological capital is a superior resource when taken as a whole, instead of being used as four individual facets (self-efficacy, resilience, hope and optimism). Therefore, this reaffirms the idea that psychological capital is a better resource at buffering burnout than the individual components themselves. Additionally, it assists in reducing job demands (Leiter & Bakker, 2010).

There has been a lot of research that has shown psychological capital can predict an extensive variety of work-related behavioural and attitudinal outcomes. Psychological capital has been linked to job satisfaction, organisational commitment, increased job performance, and psychological well-being (Avey, Luthans, et al., 2010). Furthermore, Wernsing (2014) confirmed that a noteworthy consequence of psychological capital is employee performance. Subsequently, it is clear from the above that psychological capital adds value within organisations as it assists in reducing negative work-related behaviours and attitudes amongst employees. In agreement, Karatepe and Karadas (2014) indicated that psychological capital is an extremely pertinent resource as it decreases work-family/family-work conflict and turnover.

In conclusion, psychological capital can be viewed as having a positive impact on an employee's overall well-being and therefore can be viewed as a valuable resource for working mothers operating in multiple domains.

2.5.6. Positive work-home/home-work interaction and job characteristics as a critical job resource for working mothers

Job resources are those social, psychological, physical, or organisational aspects of the job that, firstly, are useful in achieving work goals; secondly, stimulate personal growth and development; and thirdly, reduce job demands and the accompanying costs involved (Bakker et al., 2011). Examples of job resources would be autonomy and flexibility in one's job. Job resources are similar to personal resources in that they can be predictors of employee engagement (Nell, 2015). Job resources also assist in buffering against the negative effects of job demands by functioning as proactive factors (Lee, et al., 2019).

Job resources have both intrinsic and extrinsic driving forces (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). The intrinsic motivational potential of job resources enables learning and personal development, and the extrinsic motivational potential provides instrumental help and detailed information for goal achievement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Through employers assisting employees in achieving their goals, they enable them to become more engaged and committed in their jobs, because they receive fulfilment from it. Multiple studies have revealed that resources such as autonomy, social support, supervisory feedback and opportunities for personal development have all been positively correlated to improved work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009; Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006; Saks, 2006). Importantly, these job resources have been documented as critical for most occupations. The job resources that were researched in this study include job characteristics (derived from the job characteristics model) and positive WH/HW interaction.

2.5.6.1. Positive work-home/home-work interaction

The positive interaction between work and home domains refers to the degree to which success or progress in one domain will positively influence participation in another domain. When employees find a balance in their work and home domains, there could potentially be positive outcomes in the work environment that end up benefiting the home environment and *vice versa*. There are copious amounts of research focussing on negative consequences

surrounding the work-home and home-work interactions, while few studies have focused on the potential positive aspects of the relationship (Łaba & Geldenhuys, 2018; Frone, 2003). Research has shown that there can be beneficial aspects to workers combining work and family life, hence the importance of studying the positive aspects of the work-life interaction (Mostert, Cronje, et al., 2006; Hochschild, 1997; Kirchmeyer, 1993).

Having sufficient resources in each domain will allow working mothers to adequately deal with the demands they face. According to Gattiker and Larwood (1990), when employees received support from their spouses, they have a tendency to cope with the pressures experienced at work more efficiently. Additionally, resources within the work and home were linked with decreased levels of negative spillover and increased levels of positive spillover between work and family (Grzywacz et al., 2000). Having a partner to talk to about work pressures and that understands these pressures, could assist individuals in better handling the pressures aligned with their jobs (Grzywacz et al., 2000). Therefore, having adequate resources in the home environment allows working mothers to handle the demands in their work environment.

The E-R model mentioned above can also be used to explain positive work-home interactions, as a result of the expenditure of effort being accompanied by positive load reactions (Van Aard & Mostert, 2008). According to Van Aard and Mostert (2008), if an individual has adequate job resources to deal with high job demands, they can mobilise and replenish their energy instead of depleting it. Subsequently, their success in the work domain will facilitate their functioning in the home domain. Positive spillover can originate in the work environment and be translated into the home environment, and *vice versa* (Van Aard & Mostert, 2008). Positive spillover can assist in challenging the assumption that functioning in multiple domains may result in the depletion of a fixed amount of energy. This can be achieved through individuals being able to learn and grow within the two domains simultaneously. For example, positive home-work interaction experienced daily may assist the individual in having a higher tolerance for stress when handling workplace pressures (Łaba & Geldenhuys, 2018).

The Conservation of Resources (COR) theory provides context surrounding the interaction between demands and resources. According to Hobfoll (1989) and the COR theory, psychological stress will occur when individuals are threatened with a loss of resources. This occurs when there is an actual loss of individual resources and there is not a sufficient amount of resource gain after significant resource expenditure (Hobfoll, 1989). The aforementioned shows the importance of resource gain in order to manage threats and avoid harmful outcomes (Hobfoll, 1989). Hobfoll (2002) suggests that resources are able to produce other resources, which could lead to positive outcomes in the form of increased well-being and improved coping.

It is clear from the above that a positive interaction effect will result in a positive spillover across the two domains. This positive spillover will act as a resource for working mothers and increase their well-being. In line with the E-R model, working mothers' ability to deal with the job demands through their available resources will ensure that they are re-energised and fully able to mobilise their resources.

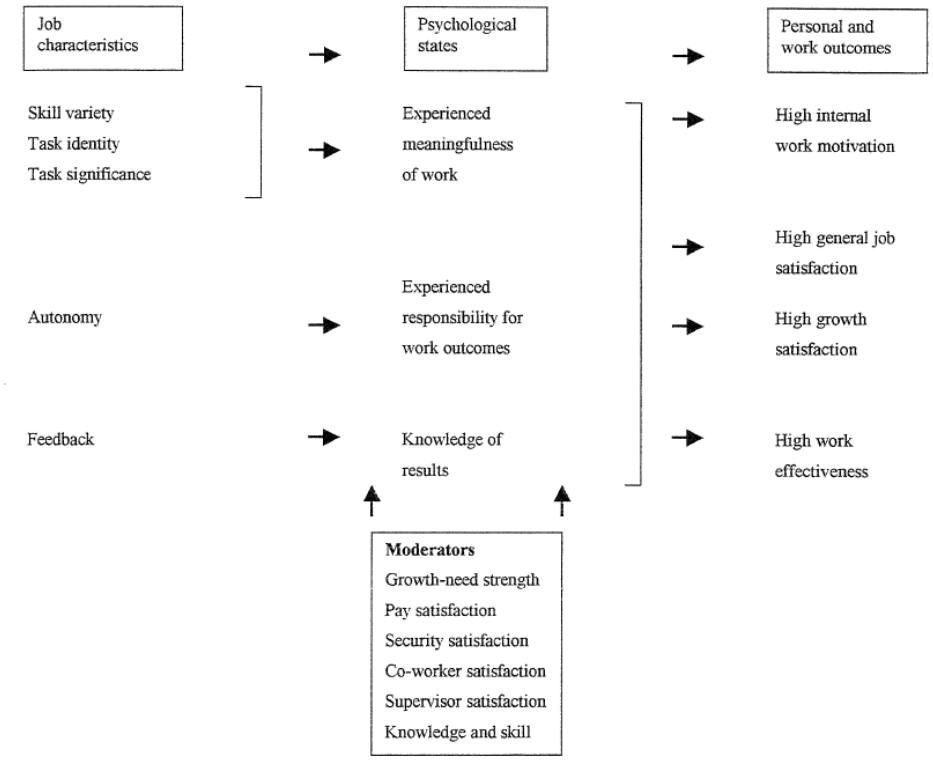
2.5.6.2. Job characteristics model

The Job Characteristics Model and the accompanying Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), have been utilised in South Africa to assist in job redesign (Boonzaier, Ficker, et al., 2001). The model provides conditions in which workers will display motivation, satisfaction and productive behaviour. Different job characteristics can result in certain psychological states and subsequently affect personal and work outcomes. These personal and work outcomes can only be achieved if the three psychological states are experienced as depicted in Figure 2.3 (Boonzaier et al., 2001). The five characteristics that make up the Job Characteristics Model, namely skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback, will make up the job resources that an individual possesses and these resources can buffer against the demands experienced. These characteristics are malleable aspects that organisations can change to improve an individual's job resources to buffer against the demands. Research completed by Bakker et al. (2011) revealed that there was a less severe positive relationship

between job demands and burnout when employees had access to job resources such as feedback from supervisors. Job resources will effectively buffer the negative effects of job demands when the types of job demands and resources match (Bakker et al., 2011). These five resources will be evaluated in this study.

Figure 2.3

The Job Characteristics Model



Note. Retrieved from “Work redesign” by J. R. Hackman and G. R. Oldham, 1980, Addison-Wesley.

According to Boonzaier et al. (2001), skill variety refers to the degree to which a job entails a variety of activities and requires the employee to have diverse skills and talents in order to complete the work. The degree to which a job requires the completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work can be termed task identity (Boonzaier et al., 2001). This involves an employee doing a job from beginning to end and being able to see an outcome. Furthermore, task significance refers to the degree to which a job has a significant impact on

the lives or work of individuals (Boonzaier et al., 2001). This significance can be in the immediate organisation in which the individual works, or in the external environment. These three components of the model can be combined to influence an individual's feeling of meaningfulness in their work (Gagne et al., 1997).

Hackman and Oldham (1975, p. 258) define autonomy as "the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out". Research indicates that job autonomy is critical for the health of employees, mostly due to greater autonomy being linked with increased opportunities to deal with stressful situations (Bakker et al., 2011). Job autonomy is referred to as independence from other individuals while performing tasks on the one hand and having decision-making freedom concerning one's work pace on the other (Bakker et al., 2011). Many studies have established that autonomy could act as a buffer against the impact of job demands on psychological stress (Bakker et al., 2011). The concept of autonomy has recently been expanded to include freedom and discretion in decision-making (Nell, 2015; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). When an employee experiences increased autonomy, it will likely enhance their feeling of responsibility at work.

Feedback is defined as the degree to which an individual is provided with clear and direct information regarding the effectiveness of the tasks they have performed (Nell, 2015; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006). Employees that receive constructive feedback are more able to effectively perform in their work, additionally, it improves the communication between the employees and their supervisors (Bakker et al., 2011). Feedback from a job can include information regarding the quality and quantity of an individual's work performance (Nell, 2015). When employees are provided with specific and accurate information, both them and their supervisors can alter and improve their performance (Bakker et al., 2011). Appraising employees on good performance assists in maintaining their motivation and signals to them to continue on the current path (Bakker et al., 2011). To assist in preventing work problems and minimising surprises during performance appraisals, it is important for employers to

positively communicate with their employees when they need to improve their performance (Bakker et al., 2011). Performance feedback can assist in alleviating cognitive demands by reducing the work-related issues that the employee may take home, thereby reducing work-home interference (Bakker et al., 2011).

Research has discovered that three of the job characteristics, namely skill variety, feedback and autonomy, have shown a significant relationship with organisational commitment (Bahrami et al., 2016). This suggests that improvement in key job characteristics will lead to more committed employees. Van Deventer (2015) supported the above research by showing a positive correlation between higher scores on job characteristics and levels of work engagement in South Africa.

Limited studies have been completed on the relationship between the five core job characteristics and working mothers in South Africa, creating a significant need for this research to be performed. This paves the way for insight into key job resources that can assist organisations in the development of support structures for working mothers. This may lead to working mothers being more committed to their organisations and reducing their intention to quit.

2.5.7. Summary of latent variables

This section provided definitions of the relevant variables being studied. Consequently, the relationships between these variables and their related hypotheses will now be discussed.

2.6. THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG LATENT VARIABLES

The relationships among the latent variables are outlined below and 15 hypotheses are put forward.

2.6.1. Burnout and work engagement

It is presumed that work engagement is the positive antithesis of burnout (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Burnout is viewed as the erosion of engagement, through which energy will turn into exhaustion, involvement will become cynicism, and efficiency will turn into

ineffectiveness (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Burnout and engagement are considered to be on opposite ends of the continuum, this is however questionably based on the debate on the polarity of positive and negative effects (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Therefore, in line with this logic, it is unlikely that employees that are burned-out would display increased levels of work engagement, or that employees that are highly engaged would be burnt out.

Maslach and Leiter (2008) suggested that work engagement is in fact a different construct from burnout. Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) confirmed this statement as they believed that burnout and engagement should be seen as independent and negatively correlated states of mind. These findings were further argued by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) through the claim that a low level of burnout cannot be viewed as a high level of work engagement. In agreement, Maslach and Leiter (2008) believed that there can be a state of equilibrium between burnout and engagement. Research conducted by Marti et al. (2019) revealed that higher levels of work engagement could prompt lower levels of burnout. Additionally, their results highlighted that a failure to experience feelings of wellness at work activated the mechanisms that induce the burnout process.

In summary, it is expected that the relationship between burnout and work engagement will be moderate to strongly negative. The following hypothesis is relevant to the relationship between burnout and work engagement:

Hypothesis 1: Burnout ($\eta 1$) has a significant negative effect on work engagement ($\eta 2$) among working mothers.

2.6.2. Burnout and intention to quit

Burnout affects a broad range of detrimental employee workplace outcomes and has been widely researched across the world. Recent research has indicated that burnout can have detrimental outcomes for a workforce and can subsequently harmfully impact employee attitudes and behaviours (Elçi et al., 2018). A large volume of research supports the assumption of negative outcomes as a result of the interaction of burnout with various

withdrawal intentions (Elçi et al., 2018; Han et al., 2016; Kim & Stoner, 2008; Lu & Gursoy, 2016). Different forms of job withdrawal include absenteeism, intention to quit your job and actual turnover (Elçi et al., 2018).

Research has indicated that intention to quit/turnover intention is the more likely outcome for employees that have a high degree of burnout (Elçi et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2003; Shimizu et al., 2005). Additionally, organisational literature has shown support for a positive relationship between burnout and turnover (Elçi et al., 2018; Cropanzano et al., 2003; Fogarty et al., 2000; Jones et al., 2010). Subsequently, the following hypothesis is relevant to the relationship between burnout and intention to quit:

Hypothesis 2: Burnout (η1) has a significant positive effect on intention to quit (η3) among working mothers.

2.6.3. Work engagement and intention to quit

There are multiple reasons to assume work engagement is related to various positive work outcomes. Firstly, work engagement has been associated with a feeling of fulfilment and related to positive work experiences and states of mind (Saks & Gruman, 2014). Subsequently, these positive experiences are more than likely to result in positive work outcomes. This is described by Saks (2006), who reported that these positive experiences were related to positive work outcomes. According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), employees that are engaged are typically more attached to their organisations and will likely have a lower tendency to leave the organisation as a consequence. Research conducted by Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) reaffirmed this statement by showing that engagement is negatively related to intention to quit and positively related to organisational commitment.

Research has shown that there is a significant negative correlation between work engagement and intention to quit/turnover intention (Agarwal & Gupta, 2018; Saks, 2006; Agarwal, 2014). Furthermore, a recent meta-analysis indicated that there is a strong negative relationship between work engagement and intention to quit (Agarwal & Gupta, 2018;

Halbesleben, 2010). Therefore, the following hypothesis is relevant to the relationship between work engagement and turnover intention:

Hypothesis 3: Work engagement ($\eta 2$) has a significant negative effect on intention to quit ($\eta 3$) among working mothers.

2.6.4. Role overload and burnout

Research conducted by Carlson and Kacmar (2000) provided evidence that role overload is an antecedent of conflict between work and personal life. Many researchers view role overload as a form of job demand. Employers are often blind to the fact that role overload is rife among employees who are struggling to juggle multiple work-life responsibilities. An unreasonable workload can be further exacerbated in the case of working mothers who have significant caring responsibilities on a personal level (Chawla & Sondhi, 2011).

Even though companies try to be objective and humanistic when designing job roles, employees may still experience the feeling of being overburdened and unable to fulfil the responsibilities assigned to them (Chawla & Sondhi, 2011). Women are notoriously known to juggle multiple roles that often permeate the boundaries of work and home. Subsequently, it is expected that working mothers that have the responsibility of caring for dependent children will face the job demand of role overload. Role overload includes qualitative and quantitative overload. Qualitative overload refers to an individual feeling that they do not have the necessary skills or talents required to complete the task effectively; whereas quantitative overload is an individual's feeling that their work cannot be completed in the agreed-upon time (Yip et al., 2008; Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Burnout within the work environment has been linked to demands at work and an associated lack of resources (Yip et al., 2008). These demands encompass role overload, which is widely viewed as a major job stressor. Role overload has been commonly investigated as an antecedent of burnout (Yip et al., 2008; Sweeney & Summers, 2002; Jamal, 2005). Role overload often occurs as a result of resource scarcity and the repeated threat of

retrenchments. This is concluding in burnout as a result of employees being continually overloaded (Yip et al., 2008). A study conducted by Yip et al (2008) revealed that there was a significant relationship between role overload and burnout of employees. Furthermore, studies conducted on nurses revealed that their perception of increased workload resulted in increased levels of distress, which comprised of cynicism and emotional exhaustion, both of which are components of burnout (Ahmad, 2010; Greenglass et al., 2003). Finally, research conducted by Ahmad (2008) found that physicians who experience role overload seemed to be more emotionally drained.

Therefore, based on the above findings, there is support for the relationship between role overload and burnout. As a result, the following hypothesis can be put forward:

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant positive relationship between role overload ($\xi 1$) and burnout ($\eta 1$) among working mothers.

2.6.5. Negative WH/HW interactions and burnout

As working mothers continue to enter the workplace, they are faced with increasingly more demands and challenges. The ability to juggle multiple roles in both domains continues to put working mothers under pressure. When combined with a lack of resources, these increased demands can result in lower levels of well-being. As a result of work and home being the two most salient points in an individual's life, employees, and in particular women, have become increasingly worried about handling the conflict experienced in meeting the demands of these domains (Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). It is unsurprising that when the demands from the two domains are unmanageable, the conflict experienced by employees' results in increased health risk and an increased level of withdrawal behaviour (Duxbury & Higgins, 1991).

The vast quantity of research on the topic lacks a thorough analysis of how spillover from work affects an individual's home life, and in turn, how family and personal well-being at home has an impact on the individual's attitudes and feelings in their job (Bacharach et al.,

1991). All these factors unite to affect the burnout an individual experiences. Studies conducted by Montgomery et al. (2003) found that both negative WHI and HWI were correlated to burnout. Furthermore, the interaction between work and home is found to play a significant role in burnout for both men and women (Dyrbye et al., 2011).

The following hypothesis concerns the relationship between negative WH/HW interaction and burnout:

Hypothesis 5: Negative WH/HW interaction ($\xi 2$) has a significant positive effect on burnout ($\eta 1$) among working mothers.

2.6.6. Personal resources (psychological capital) and work engagement

In the past, personal resources were viewed in only a mediating capacity. The first studies on personal resources concentrated on self-efficacy, and organisation-based self-esteem (Nell, 2015). In these studies, it was hypothesised that the relationship linking job resources and work engagement was mediated by specific personal resources (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). In addition, Herbert (2011) found that optimism and self-efficacy had a significant relationship with work engagement. Furthermore, resilience was also found to correlate significantly with engagement (Herbert, 2011). Employees with high levels of self-efficacy or optimism may perceive or build more resources in order to deal with more demanding situations (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009).

Engaged workers have the opportunity to capitalise on their different personal resources which reflect an important element of a person's adaptability (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Subsequently, it is believed that an individual's choice on whether or not to engage in their work will depend on their personal resources (Nell, 2015). Leiter and Bakker (2010) also suggest that psychological capital was a key component in the development of work engagement.

The personal resources that are applicable to this study are hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience. It is hypothesised that personal resources will have a positive effect on work engagement.

Hypothesis 6: Psychological Capital ($\xi 3$) has a significant positive effect on work engagement ($\eta 2$) among working mothers'.

2.6.7. Positive WH/HW interaction and work engagement

As a result of the ever-increasing job demands that working mothers experience, having resources available that assist individuals in achieving work-life balance is likely to lead to employee engagement. Organisations can provide certain job resources such as job autonomy and family-friendly organisational policies which can buffer the demands of working mothers. This can assist in facilitating work-life balance which will translate into employees experiencing work engagement (Van Zyl, 2013).

Various studies have found a strong correlation between family mastery and employee work engagement (Van Zyl, 2013). It was also found that when an employee had supervisor support and job autonomy, and when the organisation had family-friendly policies in place, greater employee work engagement was observed (Van Zyl, 2013). Richman (2006) found that a significant relationship exists between flexible work arrangements provided by the company and employee work engagement. Further studies by Mostert and Rathbone (2001) found that there was a favourable relationship between positive work-home interaction and employee engagement. Based on the evidence provided, the resources available to an individual in the form of supportive management staff, reduced job demands, job autonomy and workplace flexibility all assist in promoting work-life balance and can also result in employee work engagement and reduce the employee's intention to quit their job.

Minimal research has been completed on the relationship between positive WH/HW interaction and work engagement as much of the research has focussed on burnout. Being engaged assists employees in handling the demands of work (Montgomery et al., 2003).

Experiencing positive WH/HW interaction can result in employees experiencing more engagement, whereas negative interactions can result in employees experiencing reduced engagement (Montgomery et al., 2003). Studies conducted by Montgomery et al. (2003) showed that when an individual experienced positive WHI/HWI, it resulted in increased engagement, however, when an individual had negative WHI/HWI, it resulted in reduced engagement.

Positive WH/HW interaction can stem from the positive spillover that occurs as a result of an individual having sufficient resources. Research conducted by Mostert, Cronje, et al. (2006) revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between positive WHI and work engagement. Therefore, having sufficient resources to meet job demands can facilitate the recovery of energy and reduce the risk of negative spillover. The following hypothesis is relevant to the relationship between positive work-home interaction and work engagement:

Hypothesis 7: Positive WH/HW interaction ($\xi 4$) will have a significant positive effect on work engagement ($\eta 2$) amongst working mothers.

2.6.8. Job characteristics and work engagement

As mentioned previously, the Job Characteristic Model focuses on five core characteristics, namely skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback, and autonomy. Jobs that score highly on the five core characteristics generally offer employees the opportunity and incentive to bring more of themselves into their work and be more engaged in what they do (Albrecht et al., 2015). Albrecht et al. (2015) showed that job characteristics were able to predict work engagement. Therefore, employees who are given jobs that score highly on the five core job characteristics will more likely experience higher work engagement.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2004) suggest that job characteristics are an essential resource that fuels work engagement. Of particular importance is the need for autonomy as well as various significant tasks as these characteristics can improve the level of intrinsic motivation experienced by an individual by enhancing their feeling of accomplishment and self-

actualisation in their job (Agarwal & Gupta, 2018). Job characteristics that are motivating will more likely foster work engagement as a result of employees deriving fulfilment from their job. Previous research supported the link between work engagement and job characteristics such as autonomy, feedback, and skills variety (Agarwal & Gupta, 2018). Therefore, the following hypothesis is relevant to the relationship between job characteristic and work engagement:

Hypothesis 8: Job characteristics (skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback and autonomy) ($\xi 5$) will have a significant positive effect on work engagement ($\eta 2$) among working mothers.

2.7. MODERATING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN THE LATENT VARIABLES OF INTEREST

Theron (2017) described a moderating variable as a third variable that impacts the strength of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Through statistical analyses, if a significant relationship is found, the moderators can either strengthen or weaken the effects of the variables.

For this study, the assumption was made that job and personal resources would weaken the effect that job demands had on burnout. Additionally, it was assumed that job demands would influence the impact that job and personal resources have on engagement. The hypotheses listed below were formulated in relation to the moderating effect that job resources (job characteristics and positive WH/HW interaction) and personal resources (psychological capital) have on the relationships between job demands and burnout. This will then lead to the hypotheses formulated for the moderating effect that job demands (role overload and negative WH/HW interaction) have on the relationship between job and personal resources and work engagement.

2.7.1. The first interaction effect

The first interaction details the role that job and personal resources play in buffering the relationship between job demands and burnout.

According to Bakker et al (2014), job resources in the form of social support, feedback, autonomy, and development opportunities alleviate the impact of job demands on burnout. Research conducted by Bakker and Demerouti (2005) showed the benefits that job resources played when individuals were faced with extremely high demands. Research conducted on service-based jobs found that when individuals received support and recommendations from their managers on how to deal with difficult situations, it resulted in them dealing with the situation better and restricted them from experiencing high levels of burnout (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). This shows how supervisory assistance in the form of a job resource can assist in influencing a job demand and subsequently lower the levels of burnout experienced.

Therefore, the buffering hypotheses put forward detail the interaction between job demands and job resources. This buffering effect proposes that the relationship between job demands and burnout weakens when employees have access to a high level of job resources. Job characteristics and positive WH/WH interaction are viewed as job resources, subsequently, it is hypothesised that they will assist in reducing the experience of role overload, negative WH/HW interaction and burnout.

Hypothesis 9: Positive WHI/HWI ($\xi 4$) moderates the relationship between role overload ($\xi 1$) and burnout ($\eta 1$).

Hypothesis 10: Job characteristics ($\xi 5$) moderates the relationship between negative WHI/HWI ($\xi 2$) and burnout ($\eta 1$).

Hypothesis 11: Job characteristics ($\xi 5$) moderates the relationship between role overload ($\xi 1$) and burnout ($\eta 1$).

A significant expansion to the JD-R model arose through the inclusion of personal resources in the model and theory. Research conducted by Chen et al. (2001) showed that there is a relationship between personal resources and stress resilience and this can have a positive effect on the physical and emotional well-being of employees. Therefore, the above study suggests that employees that have high levels of personal resources are more able to

deal with difficult situations and are less likely to experience negative outcomes such as burnout. It is expected that working mothers with high levels of psychological capital will pay extra attention to their job resources than their demands, resulting in decreased levels of exhaustion and burnout and greater levels of work engagement (Xanthopoulou et al., 2013).

Psychological capital is characterised as a personal resource, therefore, it is hypothesised that it will influence the way in which working mothers experience role overload and negative WH/HW interaction through buffering the relationship with burnout.

Hypothesis 12: Psychological capital (ξ3) moderates the relationship between negative WHI/HWI (ξ2) and burnout (η1).

Hypothesis 13: Psychological capital (ξ3) moderates the relationship between role overload (ξ1) and burnout (η1).

2.7.2. The second interaction effect

The second interaction effect looks at how job demands amplify the impact of job and personal resources on work engagement.

Studies have discovered that job resources have a more significant effect on work engagement when coupled with high job demands. Therefore, when employees are faced with challenging job demands, job resources become an invaluable variable that can foster dedication to a task (Bakker et al., 2014). Having a challenging job can lead to an individual excelling in their work environment, which can result in work engagement. A stronger relationship is experienced between resources and work engagement when job demands are high (Bakker et al., 2014). Research conducted by Hakanen, Bakker, et al. (2005) showed that individuals benefit most from resources (through being more engaged) when job demands are high.

In the current study, role overload is viewed as a job demand. Therefore, it is hypothesised that the role overload experienced by working mothers will amplify the impact of

job resources on employee work engagement. The following hypotheses regarding the amplifying effect of job demands are proposed:

Hypothesis 14: Role overload ($\xi 1$) moderates the relationship between job characteristics ($\xi 5$) and work engagement ($\eta 2$).

Hypothesis 15: Role overload ($\xi 1$) moderates the relationship between positive WHI/HWI ($\xi 4$) and work engagement ($\eta 2$).

2.8. CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter began with an overview of the work-life interface. The JD-R model was then discussed in detail. First, an overview of the model was provided, then the applicable variables were discussed starting with the dependent variables and moving onto the independent variables. The relationship amongst the variables was then detailed with the proposed hypotheses put forward. A conceptual model (Figure 2.4) was constructed to graphically depict these arguments. The research initiating question that arose based on the literature review and relevant theory, therefore, asks: “Why is there variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers in South Africa?” The following chapter will put forward the methodology that was utilised to conduct the research and to investigate the stated hypotheses.

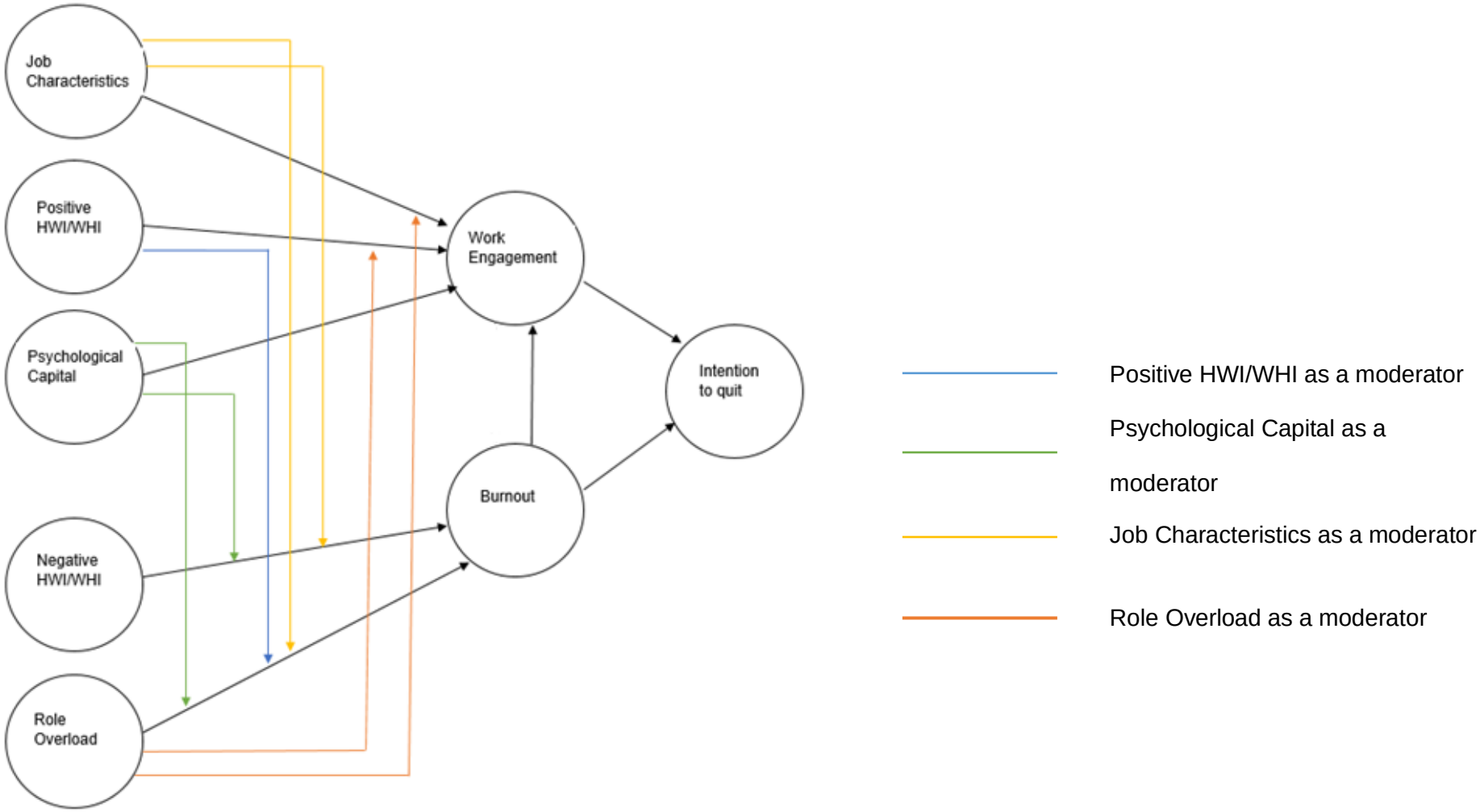


Figure 2.4 *Conceptual Model*

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The literature review provided an argument regarding the influence of job demands (role overload and negative WHI/HWI), job resources (Job characteristics and positive WHI/HWI) and personal resources (Psychological capital) on work engagement, burnout and intention to quit, as depicted in the conceptual model put forward (Figure 2.4). Following on from the literature review, this chapter details the research methodology that was used in the research process to attain the answers to the research initiation question:

"Why is there variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers in South Africa?"

Before detailing the methodology that was utilised, it is prudent to revisit the study objectives. The main objective of this study was to develop and empirically test a structural model that explains the antecedents of variance in work engagement, burnout and intention to quit amongst working mothers (based on the JD-R Model). Additionally, the research study aimed to:

- identify the most significant antecedents of variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers;
- consequently, propose and test an explanatory structural model which encompasses engagement, burnout, and intention to quit; and
- highlight the results and managerial implications of the research findings and recommend practical intervention strategies for organisations that could increase work engagement, decrease the level of burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers.

Once organisations begin to understand what influences work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers. It will assist them to better equip their employees with the necessary recourses to lower the levels of burnout experienced and increase their engagement in their job, reducing their intention to quit.

The ensuing sections aim to provide the procedures that were used in the current study. Details of the research design chosen for the study will be provided. This will be followed by a discussion of the selected participants and sample. The specific measurement instrument used to analyse the variables will also be discussed. The measurement instruments' validity and reliability will be evaluated. The chapter will conclude with an explanation of the data collection and data capturing method, the statistical analysis method, and lastly, the research ethics will be discussed.

3.2. SUBSTANTIVE RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The research methodology proposed serves the objectives of the study. The objective of the study was to develop and empirically test a structural model that explains the antecedents of variance in work engagement, burnout and intention to quit amongst working mothers (based on the JD-R Model). The literature study comprised of a discussion regarding different variables that influenced burnout, engagement, and intention to quit. Subsequently, this was reflected in the conceptual model that was provided in Figure 2.4.

The overarching substantive research hypothesis of this study indicates that the structural model (Figure 3.1) offers a true account of the psychological processes that determine the variance in burnout, work engagement and intention to quit. The substantive research hypotheses can be divided into 15 more detailed path specific substantive research hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Burnout ($\eta 1$) has a significant negative effect on work engagement ($\eta 2$) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 2: Burnout (η1) has a significant positive effect on intention to quit (η3) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 3: Work engagement (η2) has a significant negative effect on intention to quit (η3) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant positive relationship between role overload (ξ1) and burnout (η1) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 5: Negative WH/HW interaction (ξ2) has a significant positive effect on burnout (η1) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 6: Psychological Capital (ξ3) has a significant positive effect on work engagement (η2) among working mothers'.

Hypothesis 7: Positive WH/HW interaction (ξ4) will have a significant positive effect on work engagement (η2) amongst working mothers.

Hypothesis 8: Job characteristics (skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback and autonomy) (ξ5) will have a significant positive effect on work engagement (η2) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 9: Positive WHI/HWI (ξ4) moderates the relationship between role overload (ξ1) and burnout (η1).

Hypothesis 10: Job characteristics (ξ5) moderate the relationship between negative WHI/HWI (ξ2) and burnout (η1).

Hypothesis 11: Job characteristics (ξ5) moderates the relationship between role overload (ξ1) and burnout (η1).

Hypothesis 12: Psychological capital (ξ3) moderates the relationship between negative WHI/HWI (ξ2) and burnout (η1).

Hypothesis 13: Psychological capital (ξ3) moderates the relationship between role overload (ξ1) and burnout (η1).

Hypothesis 14: Role overload (ξ1) moderates the relationship between job characteristics (ξ5) and work engagement (η2).

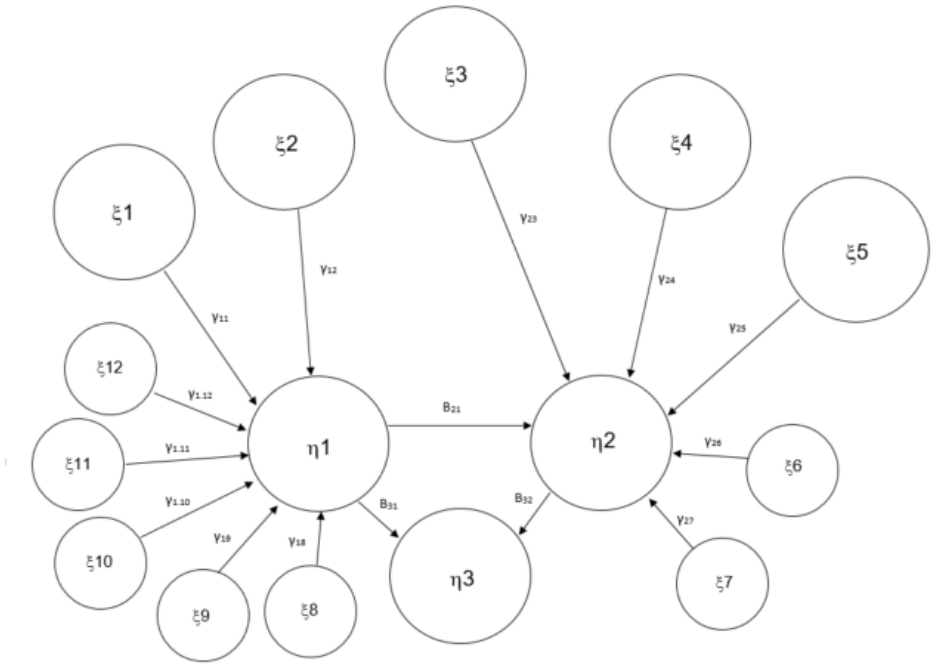
Hypothesis 15: Role overload (ξ1) moderates the relationship between positive WHI/HWI (ξ4) and work engagement (η2).

3.3. STRUCTURAL MODEL

The literature study that has been put forward above leads to a structural model which is a graphic illustration of the hypotheses created in an attempt to answer the research initiating question through theorising. As soon as the latent variables have been operationalised, formalisation and empirical testing of the specific hypotheses are possible. The proposed structural model is presented below in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1

Structural Model



After a comparison of the conceptual model (Figure 2.4) and the structural model (Figure 3.1) is completed, the differences are apparent. Extra variables have been added in Figure 3.1 which signify dummy variables. Separate variables are created as the method to test the moderating effect in structural equation modelling (SEM) (Langehoven, 2015). This is realised by multiplying the score of the moderating variable with the score of the independent variable that has been hypothesised to affect the dependent variable (Langehoven, 2015). The moderating variable (indicated by "*" in Table 3.1) subsequently becomes the dummy variable that directly affects the endogenous latent variable (Langehoven, 2015).

Table 3.1

Summary Of Latent Variables

$\eta 1$	Burnout
$\eta 2$	Work engagement
$\eta 3$	Intention to quit
$\xi 1$	Role overload
$\xi 2$	Negative WHI/HWI
$\xi 3$	Psychological capital
$\xi 4$	Positive WHI/HWI
$\xi 5$	Job characteristics
$\xi 6$	Role overload*positive WHI/WHI influences engagement
$\xi 7$	Role overload*job characteristics influences engagement
$\xi 8$	Psychological capital*negative WHI/HWI influences burnout
$\xi 9$	Psychological capital*role overload influences burnout

$\xi 10$ Positive WHI/HWI*role overload influences burnout

$\xi 11$ Job characteristics*role overload influences burnout

$\xi 12$ Job characteristics*negative WHI/HWI influences burnout

3.3.1. Statistical hypotheses

The statistical hypotheses that will be put forward in this section are a representation of the logic underlying the structural model, the research design and the nature of the statistical analysis techniques linked with an ex post facto correlational design (Theron, 2017). The appropriate statistical technique that should be used for analysing data from an ex post facto correlational design is SEM (Langehoven, 2015). The hypotheses put forward are the statistical hypotheses that can be linked back to the formulated hypotheses found in Chapter 2. The statistical hypotheses below are put together with the assistance of the structural model depicted in Figure 3.1.

Hypothesis 1:

H_{01}: $\beta_{21} = 0$

H_{a1}: $\beta_{21} < 0$

Hypothesis 2:

H_{02}: $\beta_{31} = 0$

H_{a2}: $\beta_{31} > 0$

Hypothesis 3:

H_{03}: $\beta_{32} = 0$

H_{a3}: $\beta_{32} < 0$

Hypothesis 4:

H_{04}: $\gamma_{11} = 0$

H_{a4}: $\gamma_{11} > 0$

Hypothesis 5:

H_{05}: $\gamma_{12} = 0$

H_{a5}: $\gamma_{12} > 0$

Hypothesis 6:

H_{06}: $\gamma_{23} = 0$

H_{a6}: $\gamma_{23} > 0$

Hypothesis 7:

H_{07}: $\gamma_{24} = 0$

H_{a7}: $\gamma_{24} > 0$

Hypothesis 8:

H_{08}: $\gamma_{25} = 0$

H_{a8}: $\gamma_{25} > 0$

Hypothesis 9:

H_{09}: $\gamma_{1.10} = 0$

H_{a9}: $\gamma_{1.10} < 0$

Hypothesis 10:

H_{010}: $\gamma_{1.12} = 0$

H_{a10}: $\gamma_{1.12} < 0$

Hypothesis 11:

H_{011}: $\gamma_{1.11} = 0$

H_{a11}: $\gamma_{1.11} < 0$

Hypothesis 12:

H_{012}: $\gamma_{18} = 0$

H_{a12}: $\gamma_{18} < 0$

Hypothesis 13:

H_{013}: $\gamma_{19} = 0$

H_{a13}: $\gamma_{19} < 0$

Hypothesis 14:

H_{014}: $\gamma_{27} = 0$

H_{a14}: $\gamma_{27} > 0$

Hypothesis 15:

H_{015}: $\gamma_{26} = 0$

H_{a15}: $\gamma_{26} > 0$

3.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is the plan and structure of the investigation that is put together to attain answers to the research questions (Langehoven, 2015). The researcher does not choose the research design at random; it is chosen as a result of the kind of research initiating question, research objectives, and the empirical evidence needed to test the hypotheses (Theron, 2017). According to Theron (2017) the research design, as a part of the methodology, assists in serving the epistemic ideal of science through the control mechanisms of rationality and objectivity. The researcher utilised a non-experimental ex post facto correlational design

in this study. Researchers use this design when the relationship amongst variables is observed without any form of manipulation and/or control (Theron, 2017). This could be as a result of the researcher not having the ability to control or manipulate the variables, or the manifestation of the phenomena that has already happened (Nell, 2015). Therefore, variables were not manipulated and there was no random assignment of participants.

The aims of this research design is to measure all the variables and ascertain the amount of the variance observed in work engagement, burnout and intention to quit is explained by the other variables that were hypothesised. This is achieved through testing the comprehensive structural model. Due to the nature of the ex post facto correlational design, there are allowances for inferences to be drawn from path coefficients that are significant (Nell, 2015). The ex post facto correlational design can, through the efforts of the researcher and the utilisation of particular methods, maximise systematic error variance, reduce error variance and control for extraneous variance (Theron, 2017).

When researchers need to choose a research design, it is key that they take into account the confines linked with it. The utilisation of an ex post facto correlational design has three limitations. Firstly, the researcher does not have the ability to manipulate the data; secondly, there is an absence of power to randomise; and thirdly, it is possible that the researcher may incorrectly interpret the results (Langehoven, 2015). In spite of these limitations of an ex post facto correlational design, it still holds value when conducting research. The ex post facto correlational design is commonly used in psychology due to the fact that most of the phenomena that occur in this field are not suitable for controlled environment or manipulation (Nell, 2015). The selected research design is able to provide the researcher with the ability to maximise systematic error variance, control for extraneous variance as well as minimise error variance (Theron, 2017). Subsequently, the use of this design can increase the prospects of having unambiguous empirical evidence against which hypotheses are tested (Langehoven, 2015).

3.5. RESEARCH PROCEDURE AND SAMPLING SIZE

Sampling entails the selection of a sub-set, or segment, of the total population (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The data for this study was collected from working mothers in South Africa. These working mothers were of any age, however, they had to have at least one dependent that is 21 years of age or younger. Furthermore, they were required to work at least 40 hours per week. Social media (Facebook, Instagram and LinkedIn) was used as the platform for the collection of data from the specified sample.

Theron (2017) states that sampling identification can be performed on the basis of two possible techniques, namely probability (i.e. random, stratified, cluster and systematic) and non-probability sampling (i.e. quota, purposive, convenience/availability sampling). In probability sampling, each member of the sampling population has a known, but not necessarily equal probability of being selected for the sample. Conversely, non-probability sampling refers to a sampling procedure in which the probability of selection is unknown for each member of the sampling population. Probability sampling is the most preferable choice; however, it is not always practical or feasible (Theron, 2017).

Non-probability convenience sampling was used as the sampling technique in this study. Non-probability sampling means that the subjects being selected will be conveniently accessible and of close proximity to the researcher (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). This technique is going to be used as a result of the organisational time constraints (limited time available for data collection), as well as practical limitations (survey handed out in paper format due to the employees not having access to the internet at home or not having an email address).

There are three aspects that need to be taken into account when researchers determine the sample size when using SEM as an analysis technique, namely: the ratio of the sample size to the number of parameters to be estimated; the statistical power associated with the test of the close fit hypothesis against the alternative hypothesis of mediocre fit; and practical and logical considerations, for example, suitable respondents being available and

the cost involved (Nell, 2015). According to Kelloway (1998), 200 observations for a research study would be suitable when using the SEM method of statistical analysis.

3.6. MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

It is essential that all the latent variables within the structural model are measured by an instrument that enables empirical evidence to be provided based on the hypotheses proposed. In an attempt to arrive at valid and reliable conclusions from the results achieved, the instruments that will be utilised need to have the required psychometric properties (Nell, 2015). The constructs are operationalised through the selection of the measuring instruments, subsequently, this makes the constructs measurable. In this study, the researcher made use of seven validated questionnaires to measure the constructs. Certain variables will be measured by an entire questionnaire, while other variables will be measured by relevant parts of the questionnaire.

The measurement instruments that were utilised for the study include Utrecht Work Engagement Scale 9-item version (UWES-9) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003); the Revised Job Diagnostic Survey (Ferris & Gilmore, 1985); the Psychological Capital Questionnaire Self-Rated Version (PCQ-24) (Avey et al., 2010); the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory Survey (CBI) (Kristensen et al., 2005); Role Overload Scale (ROS) (Thiagarajan et al., 2006); Survey Work-Home Interaction – Nijmegen (SWING) Instrument (Marais et al., 2009); and Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-3) (Cohen, 1993). The instruments and the empirical evidence needed in support of these instruments are put forward in the following section.

3.6.1. Biographical information

The biographical section that was contained within the questionnaire was utilised to collect information regarding participants' demographic characteristics. The demographic information that was collected included age, province of residence, marital status, the highest level of education completed and the number of dependents.

Table 3.2

Biographical Information Of The Sample Population (N = 147)

Age		
Variables	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Younger than 20	2	1%
20 to 29	23	16%
30 to 39	66	45%
40 to 49	39	39%
50 to 59	17	12%
Province of current residence		
Variables	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Gauteng	5	3%
Kwa-Zulu Natal	29	20%
Limpopo	0	0%
Mpumalanga	1	1%
Northern Cape	0	0%
Western Cape	111	76%
Marital Status		
Variables	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Single	15	10%
Married	109	75%
Divorced	15	10%
Widowed	1	1%
Other	6	4%
Highest Level of Education Completed		

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
High School, but not matric	5	3%
Matric	36	24%
Diploma	33	22%
Degree	34	23%
Honours Degree	22	15%
Master's Degree	10	7%
Doctoral	5	3%
Other	2	1%

Number of Dependents

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
1	59	40%
2	64	44%
3	17	12%
4	6	4%
5+	1	1%

3.6.2. Utrecht Work Engagement Scale Questionnaire (UWES-9)

3.6.2.1. Description of the instrument

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was designed to measure an individual's levels of work engagement. There are several UWES in existence, all of which differ in terms of length of the measure (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The scales are generally used to measure an individual's level of engagement in their work, with the main goal of improving and regulating employee wellness at work. The UWES comprises of the three aspects of work engagement, namely vigour, dedication, and absorption. The UWES originally comprised of 24 items, however, after psychometric evaluation, seven items proved to be unsound and were thus removed. This resulted in the updated survey comprising of 17 items.

For the purposes of this study, the UWES-9 (shortened version), which consists of 9 items will be utilised. According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2003), the items in the questionnaire relate to the three factors that make up work engagement: vigour (three items), dedication (three items) and absorption (three items). The score keys for the UWES-9 is as follows:

Vigour is tested in items 1, 4, and 8. All questions related to vigour are scored positively. High scores on the above items will provide the individual with a high score on vigour. Dedication is tested in items 2, 5, and 7. All items pertaining to dedication are scored positively. Scoring high on the above items will result in an individual scoring highly on dedication. Lastly, absorption is tested in items 3, 6, and 9. All the questions pertaining to absorption are scored positively. High scores on the above items will provide the individual with a high score on absorption.

UWES uses a seven-point Likert scale that ranges from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“always/daily”) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The survey takes roughly five to ten minutes to complete. It comprises of statements concerning a person’s work. The scale has been used across numerous occupational groups and job levels and it is known to be a well-research instrument. The UWES can be completed through a paper-pencil format, alternatively, it can be completed electronically.

3.6.2.2. Previous findings on the psychometric properties

The factorial validity of the UWES has been tested through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) which showed that the three-factor structure was superior to a one or two-factor structure (Nell, 2015). An international database comprised of nine countries, one of which was South Africa, was used in the evaluation of UWES (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The sample comprised of 12 631 people from ten different occupational groups.

This short-form version of the UWES scale has shown adequate psychometric properties. The three-factor model fits the data quite well, with all the fit indices meeting acceptable levels (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). The Cronbach’s alpha values for the three-item

scale varied between .60 and .88 (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003). Finally, the correlation between the short form three-item scale and the original six-item scale was above .90 (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003).

3.6.3. Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI)

3.6.3.1. Description of the instrument

The burnout construct will be measured through the Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI). The CBI questionnaire comprises of three sub-dimensions: personal burnout, work-related burnout and client-related burnout and the three different facets were created to apply different domains (Kristensen et al., 2005). The CBI focuses on fatigue and exhaustion as the two core aspects of burnout which is in line with the common and most accepted definitions of burnout (Kristensen et al., 2005). High correlation was shown between the scale other measures of fatigue and psychological well-being (Kristensen et al., 2005). Additionally, the scale assists in predicting future health-related absence, sleep problems, use of medication and intention to quit (Kristensen et al., 2005).

A variety of countries use the CBI and it has been translated into eight different languages. The complete questionnaire comprises of a 19-item inventory, however, for this study, only the two sub-dimensions of personal burnout and work-related burnout will be utilised. The two sub-dimensions are made up of six and seven items respectively. The instrument is measured on a five-point Likert Scale, ranging from 1 (“always”) to 5 (“never/almost never”).

Personal burnout was created as a sub-dimension as the researchers wanted to be able to compare individuals irrespective of their work-related status (Kristensen et al., 2005). The simple questions the scales intend to answer is: “how tired or exhausted are you?” Work-related burnout was created to define a person’s own attribution of symptoms to his/her burnout at work (Kristensen et al., 2005). According to Kristensen et al. (2005), by comparing the scales for personal burnout with work-related burnout, the researcher will be able to

recognise individuals who are tired or fatigued due to non-work issues such as health problems or family demands.

3.6.3.2. Previous findings on the psychometric properties

The Cronbach's alpha values for internal reliability for the questionnaire were very high between .85 – .87 (Kristensen et al., 2005). According to Kristensen et al. (2005), the correlations between the three CBI scales were .72, .46 and .61, however, these correlations significantly diverse based on the kinds of workplace. A study conducted by Milfont et al. (2008) achieved Cronbach's alpha values higher than the recommended level of .70 and the inter-item correlations were greater than .40. This indicates acceptable internal consistency and homogeneity of the measure. Subsequently, the CBI scale is shown to have high internal reliability. Additionally, the non-response rates on the items are low (Kristensen et al., 2005).

3.6.4. Turnover Intention Scale (TIS-3)

3.6.4.1. Description of the instrument

Turnover intention was measured using the three-item turnover propensity scale developed by Hellgren et al., 1997. A person's behavioural intention to leave a company can also be termed intention to quit. Subsequently, it is imperative for companies to understand the contributing factors in order to prevent employees from leaving before it is too late. The TIS-3 was utilised to measure working mothers' intention to leave their organisation. The scale comprises of three items that can be answered on a five-point Likert scale. The answers range from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 5 ("strongly agree"). The following statements are used to operationalise the construct:

- I am actively looking for other jobs,
- I feel like I could leave this job,
- If I was completely free to choose, I would leave this job.

3.6.4.2. Previous findings on the psychometric properties

According to Hellgren et al. (1997), the three-item TIS achieved a Cronbach's alpha of .81. The scale also showed strong construct validity and reliability.

3.6.5. Revised Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)

3.6.5.1. Description of the instrument

Boonzaier et al. (2001) support the use of the revised version of the JDS as it offers a direct measure of job characteristics. This survey assists in identifying weak points that influence employee effectiveness and performance. Five core job characteristics are measured through the revised version of the JDS, namely skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The JDS measures the five characteristics and subsequently allows for the computation of an employee's Motivating Potential Score (MPS) (Ferris & Gilmore, 1985). MPS additive index will be utilised to measure the five core job characteristic dimensions listed above. The additive index will be utilised as it takes into account the moderator effects (Boonzaier et al., 2001).

A seven-point response scale is used to measure the five core job dimensions where 1 = low and 7 = high. The MPS will provide a single indicator of the degree to which the five job characteristics are present in a job (Boonzaier et al., 2001). The total MPS can range from 1 to 343 (Boonzaier et al., 2001). The researcher only measured the five job characteristics without taking into consideration the moderating effects and outcomes. Therefore, only the first two sections of the JDS were utilised. The compilation of the scores for the JDS questionnaire are obtained from the following questions:

Skill variety is tested through question 3 in section 1 and statements 1 and 4 from section 2. Task identity is tested through question 2 of section 1 and statements 2 and 7 of section 2. Task significance is tested through question 4 in section 1 and statements 5 and 10 in section 2. Autonomy is tested through question 1 in section 1 and statements 6 and 9 of section 2. Finally, feedback is tested through question 5 of section 1 and statements 3 and 8 of section 2. All questions are scored positively, therefore, should an individual score high on

the questions and statement it can be interpreted as their job including the specific job characteristic.

These scores are combined into a motivating potential score. The weighted additive index is calculated as follows:

MPS = Skill variety + Task Identity + Task Significance + Autonomy + Feedback

3.6.5.2. Previous findings on the psychometric properties

Scott et al. (2005) found the internal consistencies for the revised JDS subscales to be:

- Skills Variety (.71)
- Task Identity (.59)
- Task Significance (.66)
- Autonomy (.66)
- Feedback (.71)

According Buys et al. (2007), the alpha coefficients of the subscales ranged between .67 to .79. This indicates that the Cronbach's alpha values are satisfactory, except for task identity. This is supported by the internal consistency for task identity above. However, overall, the revised JDS achieved satisfactory reliability. Boonzaier and Boonzaier (1994) reviewed a number of different studies assessing the reliability coefficients of the job characteristics and showed that the results are fairly similar across the board, with most studies showing Cronbach's alpha values above the recommended value of .60. Furthermore, a normative evaluation indicated that the MPS can be utilised in evaluating jobs within organisations.

3.6.6. Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ)

3.6.6.1. Description of the instrument

The Psychological Capital Questionnaire Self-Rated Version (PCQ-24) was employed to measure the personal resource construct of psychological capital. The questionnaire contains 24 items (Avey et al., 2010). The questionnaire entails of four subscales: hope,

optimism, self-efficacy and resilience**.** Each subscale is measured by six items. The instrument is measured on a six-point Likert scale where responses vary from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) (Avey et al., 2010). The scoring keys for the PCQ are:

- The self-efficacy subscale: items 1 to 6,
- The hope subscale: items 7 to 12,
- The resilience subscale: items 13 to 18,
- The optimism subscale: items 19 to 24.

Psychological capital is scored on total points, however, items 13, 20, and 23 are reversed scored.

3.6.6.2. Previous findings on the psychometric properties

According to a study conducted by Avey et al. (2010), the Cronbach's alpha values for the different subscales were as follows:

- Optimism (.78),
- Hope (.87),
- Self-efficacy (.92) and
- Resilience (.83).

Simons and Buitendach (2013) discovered that the reliability coefficient for the PCQ was .91, and the different constructs reliabilities were:

- Hope (.76),
- Optimism (.72),
- Resilience (.90) and
- Self-efficacy (.87)

Simons and Buitendach (2013) also found acceptable reliability coefficients in South African samples for all four dimensions. Finally, Luthans and Youssef (2007) reported that

the PCQ showed both reliability and construct validity. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2013), all the Cronbach's alpha values are above the cut-off of .60.

3.6.7. Survey Work-Home Interaction – Nijmegen (SWING) Instrument

3.6.7.1. Description of the instrument

The work-home interaction construct was assessed using the Survey Work-Home Interaction – Nijmegen (SWING) instrument. The SWING assesses both the direction of influence (work-to-home interaction vs. home-to-work interaction). Additionally, the quality of influence (negative vs. positive) in an individual's life (Marais et al., 2009). The questionnaire contains 27 items spread over four dimensions. The items can be answered on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (never) to 3 (always) (Marais et al., 2009). Negative WHI is measured by five strain-based items and four time-based items; positive WHI is measured by six items; negative HWI was measured by six adapted, self-developed items and parallel items; and finally, positive HWI was measured by 5 items (Marais et al., 2009).

3.6.7.2. Previous findings on the psychometric properties

The SWING instrument used a sample of 2,472 workers from five different and independent samples. According to Marais et al. (2009), the Cronbach's alpha values for the different subscales were as follows:

- Negative WHI (.90),
- Positive WHI (.84),
- Negative HIW (.87) and
- Positive HWI (.82).

Pieterse and Mostert (2005) conducted a South African study in which two different languages and ethnic groups were studied. The research found acceptable reliabilities for the four scales. The Cronbach's alpha values were as follows:

- Negative WHI ranged from .85 to .79,

- Positive WHI ranged from .67 to .79,
- Negative WHI ranged from .78 to .79 and
- Positive HWI ranged from .77 to .79

These Cronbach's alpha values are all above the cut-off of .60. Additionally, research showed that the instrument showed good construct validity and reliability.

3.6.8. Role Overload Scale

3.6.8.1. Description of the instrument

The original Role Overload scale was a 13-item scale developed by M.D Reilly in 1982. Although the scale was found to be reliable, there were calls for additional research on the scale (Thiagarajan et al., 2006). Thiagarajan et al. (2006) confirmatory factor analysis was completed on the scale which resulted in a shortened 6-item scale. The ROS items can be answered on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("strongly agree") to 5 ("strongly disagree").

3.6.8.2. Previous findings on the psychometric properties

Research conducted by Thiagarajan et al. (2006) indicated that the test for chi-square was statistically significant and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was .14. Based on the confirmatory factor analysis completed, the 6-item scale appears to be a reliable and valid measure of role overload. An email and mail survey was used to measure the assessment. The Cronbach's alpha values were .87 and .89 respectively (Thiagarajan et al., 2006). The model was also shown to fit the data very well and the scores obtained for the scale also showed reasonable reliability (Thiagarajan et al., 2006).

3.7. MISSING VALUES

There is a great possibility of when survey data is assessed that there are missing values. This can be as a result of non-response or absenteeism of participants. This can have a major impact on the empirical results if it is not sufficiently handled prior to the data analysis.

Certain approaches that can be used to help when experiencing missing values include, the quantity of missing values, the pattern of the missing data and the nature of the data. These factors all play an essential role in whether the data is salvageable (Nell, 2015). Methods in which the data can be rectified range from data deletion (list-wise and pair-wise deletion) to imputation (multiple imputations, imputation by matching and full information maximum likelihood imputation) (Nell, 2015).

3.8. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The study data can be examined through a number of techniques, specifically, item analysis and SEM. The data must first be examined to ascertain whether the items of the instrument are functioning satisfactorily before a researcher tests the actual hypotheses. Item analysis was utilised to evaluate whether the constructs measured what they were supposed to measure, and SEM was used to test the significance of the hypotheses. SmartPLS version 3 was used in the investigation of the relationship between the different variables.

3.8.1. Item analysis

The latent variables within the structural model have specific measurement instruments that were used. The main purpose of these instruments is to assist the researcher in measuring an individual’s standing on each of the constructs. The items in the questionnaires serve as stimuli that intend to elicit the participants' response in terms of the behaviours that are underlying the construct. Items responses subsequently record the behaviour that lies beneath the constructs and thus make the behaviours measurable in the form of data (Nell, 2015). It is possible for items to be poor at eliciting responses for numerous reasons, namely they can be inconsistent, insensitive, or depict a poor representation of the construct (Theron, 2017). A method in which poor items can be identified is through item statistics in item analysis. This method is employed to ascertain the quality and internal consistency reliabilities of the items of the particular scales.

As mentioned, research advises that reliabilities (i.e. Cronbach's alpha) equal to or greater than .60 are deemed satisfactory (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Based on the results of item analysis a decision will be made whether poor items are to be deleted from the instrument or their respective scale(s) (Theron, 2017). Items can be excluded from the subsequent analysis should the overall reliability of the instrument or subscale shows substantial improvement once the selected item is deleted. This process is based on the discretion of the researcher.

3.8.2. Structural Equation Modelling

According to Riou et al. (2015), SEM describes and analyses structured relationships between a set of variables. The intention of the study was to utilise covariance-based SEM through LISERAL, however, as a result of the limited sample and the complex nature of the model paths, this technique of SEM could not be used. Partial Least Squares SEM (PLS-SEM), an alternative method was therefore utilised. PLS-SEM is useful when assessing smaller sample sizes and identified preeminent dependencies among concepts (Riou et al., 2015).

The covariance-based approach and the PLS approach are two potential methods used within SEM. Generally, a SEM-based approach allows the researcher to have the flexibility to perform the following (Chin, 1998):

a. model relationships among multiple predictors and criterion variables,
b. construct unobservable latent variables,
c. model errors in measurements for observed variables, and
d. statistically test priori substantive/theoretical and measurement assumptions against empirical data.

According to Hair, Ringle, et al. (2011), the two SEM approaches differ largely in the estimation objectives and underlying philosophies. The covariance-based approach, which is a confirmatory approach, tries to minimise the differences amongst the models implied

covariance matrix and the sample covariance matrix (Hair et al., 2011). Conversely, the objective of the PLS-SEM approach is to be predictive and attempts to understand the variance of the dependent variables that form a part of the model (Hair et al., 2011). According to Robins (2014), the statistical method of the PLS approach can be more valuable when compared to the covariance-based approach, particularly when the theory does not offer unlimited explanations for dependent phenomena and the main goal is prediction within the study. The PLS approach is also used in instances where the sample size is relatively small. For this study, the sample size consisted of 147 respondents, which is viewed as relatively small.

In the application of the PLS-SEM approach, researchers are required to follow a multi-stage process (Hair, Sarstedt, et al., 2014). This involves the specification of the inner and outer model, data collection and examination, the actual model estimation, and the evolution of results (Hair et al., 2014). The three most salient steps centre on:

1. model specification;
2. outer model evaluation; and
3. inner model evaluation.

In the model specification stage, the researcher deals with setting up the inner and outer models (Hair et al., 2014). While the inner model (structural model) shows the relationships between the constructs being evaluated, the outer model (measurement model) is used to assess the relationship between the indicator variables and their corresponding constructs (Hair et al., 2014). When utilising PLS-SEM, the researcher must create a path model that connects variables and constructs based on theories and the logic of the researcher (Hair et al., 2014). Details regarding the outer model will only begin once the inner model is designed.

When assessing the outer model, the first criterion that was analysed was the internal consistency reliability. Cronbach's alpha assists in providing an estimate of reliability based

on the indicators intercorrelations (Cronbach, 1951). However, the PLS approach also assesses reliability using a composite calculation. The composite reliability score reflects whether variance in an item is attributable to the construct it was supposed to measure (Hair et al., 2014). According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the recommended value of the composite reliability criterion is at least 0.70, with values below 0.60 being considered dissatisfactory.

Construct validity is assessed through convergent validity and is the second criterion analysed. According to Hair et al. (2014, p. 112), “convergent validity is the extent to which a measure relates to other measures of the same phenomenon”. Average Variance Extracted (AVE) is utilised in the PLS approach to assess the convergent validity of the construct (Hair et al., 2014). Support for convergent validity is provided when each construct has an AVE of 0.50 or higher (Hair et al., 2014). Hair et al. (2014) explained AVE as the grand mean values of the squared loadings of a set of indicators. Therefore, an AVE of 0.50 indicates that more than half of the variance in the indicators is explained by the construct. Discriminant validity is also used to assess construct validity and provides an understanding of the extent to which the items of an instrument are distinctive (Straub et al., 2004).

Once the outer model was analysed, the inner model (structural model), was assessed. The variance of the constructs were examined, as well as the size of their effects and their predictive relevance. The proposed relationships of the structural model were evaluated by inspecting the coefficient of determination and the path coefficients. The coefficient of determination (R^2) provides an understanding of the level of variation in each endogenous variable that is considered by the whole model. According to Chin (1998), values of .67 are viewed as significant; while .33 is viewed as moderate and .19 as weak. Estimate values are obtained from the structural model. They are generally assessed for their sign, magnitude and significance.

3.9. RESEARCH ETHICS

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), ethical issues arise as a result of an interaction between researchers and participants in the research process. Consequently, a researcher should think of any possible ethical pitfalls that could arise prior to conducting research. The purpose of considering ethical risks is to attempt to protect the dignity, rights, safety and well-being of research participants.

A medium-risk classification was received by the Department Ethics Screening Committee (DESC) as well as the REC: Social, Behavioural, and Education Research (SBER) with the project number of IPSY-2020-11506. The reason for the medium-risk classification, opposed to a low-risk classification, was due to the research touching on intention to quit and burnout. The questions surrounding intention to quit and burnout may trigger working mothers that are currently unable to cope with their current circumstances and would want to quit their job, however, could not. The researcher attempted to mitigate this risk by providing the contact details for Lifeline for participants that wish to contact a counsellor.

The participants had the right to choose whether they wanted to partake in the research. They were not forced to complete any part of the survey. An informed decision was made by the participants about whether they wanted to partake in the research and there was complete anonymity thus the researcher had no way of linking responses to specific participants. Furthermore, the participant would neither benefit nor be disadvantaged if they agreed or disagreed to participate in the research.

Informed consent is an extremely important aspect of research. The following rights of participant involvement in social science research are outlined in section six of the National Health Act, 2003 (Department of Health, 2013, p. 9):

> 6. Persons with whom research is to be conducted, or their legally authorised representative, have the right to be informed of:
>
> (a) The purpose of the research;

(c) methods and procedures to be followed or used during research;

(d) alternatives apart from participating in the research;

(e) potential harms and risks involved in participation;

(f) expected benefits to the participant and other persons in the research;

(g) extent to which confidentiality and privacy will be maintained;

(i) details of the contact person in the event of a query or research related injury;

(j) reimbursement and/or incentives given for participation;

(m) their freedom to decline or withdraw from the research without prejudice; and

(n) proof of ethics committee approval or MCC approval, where relevant.

An informed consent form was included in the preamble of the research questionnaire.

Additionally consideration was given to the Ethical Rules of Conduct for Practitioners Registered under the Health Professions Act (Act no. 56 of 1974) (Republic of South Africa, 2006) which, under Annexure 12, states that:

89.

(1) A psychologist shall use language that is reasonably understandable to the research participant concerned in obtaining his or her informed consent.

(2) Informed consent referred to in subrule (1) shall be appropriately documented, and in obtaining such consent the psychologist shall –

(a) inform the participant of the nature of the research;

(b) inform the participant that he or she is free to participate or decline to participate in or to withdraw from the research;

(c) explain the foreseeable consequences of declining or withdrawing;

(d) inform the participant of significant factors that may be expected to influence his or her willingness to participate (such as risks, discomfort, adverse effects or exceptions to the requirement of confidentiality); and

(e) explain any other matters about which the participant enquires.

As a result of the study investigating factors related to well-being, there is a possibility of unusually high or low scores which could hint at a serious threat to the well-being of participants. The research took into consideration Annexure 12 of the Ethical Rules of Conduct for Practitioners Registered Under the Health Professions Act (Act no. 56 of 1974) (Republic of South Africa, 2006). It details that a researcher may be required to disclose confidential information under the following circumstances:

- with the permission of the participant concerned;
- when permitted by law to do so for a legitimate purpose, such as providing a participant with the professional services required;
- to appropriate professionals for strictly professional purposes only; or
- to protect a participant or other persons from harm.

As mentioned above, contact details for Lifeline were provided to participants should the need have arisen. However, this does not hold the researcher or institution liable for any cost that could arise from further treatment.

In conclusion, no major threats were posed by this study. The above procedures were put in place to ensure participants were protected and that they remained anonymous. The researcher is confident that with these procedures in place, all legal and ethical requirements were complied with.

3.10. CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 3 has described the methodological choices that were made throughout the research process to acquire the answers to the research initiating question and resultant hypotheses. In summation, an ex post facto correlational design was utilised in the collection

of the primary data. A non-probability convenience sample technique was used in the selection of the sample. The quantitative data was collected from working mothers employed at various organisations around South Africa. The following measures were used:

- Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9) (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2003);
- Psychological Capital Questionnaire Self-Rated Version (PCQ-24) (Avey et al., 2010);
- Copenhagen Burnout Inventory (CBI) (Kristensen et al., 2005);
- Survey Work-Home Interaction – Nijmegen (SWING) Instrument (Marais et al., 2009);
- Role Overload Scale (ROS) (Thiagarajan et al., 2006);
- Revised Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Ferris & Gilmore, 1985); and
- Turnover intention scale (TIS-3) (Cohen, 1993)

In order to analyse and collect the data item analysis and PLS analysis methods were used. Chapter four presents the research findings derived from the statistical analysis.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the research results that were obtained and provides analyses of these results. The results pertaining to the structural model of intention to quit among working mothers will be discussed and assessed in line with the hypotheses put forward in chapters 2 and 3. Firstly, item analysis was utilised to ascertain the reliability of the measurement instruments. The fit and significance of the structural model are then detailed. Finally, the findings of the analyses and the hypotheses are interpreted.

4.2. VALIDATING THE MEASUREMENT MODEL

4.2.1. Item Analysis

The psychometric soundness of the specific measurement was confirmed through item analysis. The criteria for validity and reliability (Cronbach's alpha) generally depend on the nature of the construct in the study. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1999), a satisfactory Cronbach's alpha is ≥ .70, thus this cut-off was applied in this study. Item correlation is used to evaluate the consistency between items, as a subtype of internal consistency. Tabachnich and Fidell (2013) view values between 1.00 and > .50 as excellent. Furthermore, values between .50 and > .00 indicate acceptable reliability. All items in the questionnaire had item analysis conducted. In Table 4.1, the results of the item analysis are presented for each measurement scale.

The Cronbach's alpha values showed excellent results (≥ .71), with the exception of Negative WHI/HWI which was less than satisfactory with a score of .61.

4.2.1.1. Intention to quit

The TIS-3 achieved a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .93 which points to exceptional internal consistency reliability. No items were deleted as the individual items did not negatively

affect the coefficient. Excellent reliability was also indicated by the result of the average inter-item correlation total scale score of .81. The item-total correlations ranged from .83 and .88.

Table 4.1

Means, Standard Deviations And Internal Consistency Reliabilities

Scale	Sample size	Number of items	Mean of scales	Standard deviation	Cronbach's alphas	Average inter-item correlation
Intention to quit	147	3	8	3.89	0.93	0.81
Work Engagement	147	9	41.63	10.05	0.94	0.64
Burnout	147	13	36.83	9.55	0.92	0.50
Negative WHI/HWI	147	15	3.38	0.91	0.61	0.45
Positive WHI/HWI	147	12	5.07	1.08	0.71	0.55
Psychological Capital	147	24	17.97	2.73	0.88	0.66
Role Overload	147	6	13.05	4.19	0.81	0.43
Job Characteristics	147	15	27.15	4.18	0.79	0.44

4.2.1.2. Work Engagement

The UWES-9 produced a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .94, which points to exceptional internal consistency reliability. Again, there were no items deleted as the individual items did not negatively affect the coefficient. The average inter-item correlation total scale was .64, which points to excellent reliability. The item-total correlations ranged from .67 to .85.

4.2.1.3. Burnout

The 13-item CBI achieved a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .92 which shows outstanding internal consistency reliability. Once again, there were no items deleted as the individual items did not negatively affect the coefficient. The average inter-item correlation total scale was .50, which points to acceptable reliability. The item-total correlations ranged from .41 to .77.

4.2.1.4. Negative WHI/HWI

The 27-item SWING was used to test negative WHI/HWI. Of the 27 items, 15 items were used to assess negative WHI/HWI. The instrument produced a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .61. Although this is below the agreed-upon cut-off below, it can still be viewed as reasonable internal consistency reliability. When separated, negative WHI achieved a Cronbach alpha of .90, while negative HWI achieved a Cronbach's alpha of .77, these show excellent and satisfactory internal consistency reliability, respectively. Once again, there were no items deleted as the individual items did not negatively affect the coefficients. The average inter-item correlation total scale was .45, which points to acceptable reliability. The item-total correlations ranged from .40 to .78.

4.2.1.5. Positive WHI/WHI

The 27-item SWING was used to test positive WHI/HWI. Of the 27 items, 12 items were used to assess positive WHI/HWI. The instrument achieved a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .71 which indicates satisfactory internal consistency reliability. Once again, there were no items deleted as the individual items did not negatively affect the coefficient. The average inter-item correlation total scale was .55, which indicated excellent reliability. The item-total correlations ranged from .39 to .69.

4.2.1.6. Psychological Capital

The PCQ-24 produced a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .88, this shows excellent internal consistency reliability. Once again, no items were deleted as the individual items did not negatively affect the coefficient. The average inter-item correlation total scale was .66,

which points to excellent reliability. The item-total correlations ranged from .27 to .80, with the exception of item 13 (resilience item), which produced an item correlation of .12. Although this is still viewed as an acceptable item-total correlation, it could indicate that this specific question is not discriminating well. It is essential to note that this is a reversed scored item and it is often observed that reversed scored items score low (M. Kidd, personal communication, November 28, 2020). The removal of this item does not significantly increase the Cronbach's alpha coefficient, subsequently, the decision was taken not to remove this item from the scale (M. Kidd, personal communication, November 28, 2020).

4.2.1.7. Role Overload

The 6-item Role Overload Scale produced a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .81, this shows excellent internal consistency reliability. Once again, there were no items removed as the individual items did not negatively affect the coefficient. The average inter-item correlation total scale was .43, which points to satisfactory reliability. The item-total correlations ranged from .48 to .70.

4.2.1.8. Job Characteristics

The 12-item Job Diagnostic Survey achieved a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .79, which shows excellent internal consistency reliability. As before, there were no items deleted as the individual items did not negatively affect the coefficient. The average inter-item correlation total scale was .44, which points to satisfactory reliability. The item-total correlations ranged from .44 to .82.

4.2.1.9. Summary regarding the reliability of the latent variables

The item analysis completed above aimed to critically evaluate the functioning of each latent variable. Additionally, it assessed the psychometric reliability of the indicator variables of each latent variable. Sufficient and satisfactory evidence was provided by the item analysis, therefore, all the items in the measurement instruments were included. It was discovered that all of the items were reliable and internally consistent. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients were

all satisfactory (≥ .61), with some outstanding results. No items were deleted, as it was found that the Cronbach's alpha coefficient would not significantly increase. The average inter-item correlations of the scales ranged from .43 to .81, these results were deemed acceptable. The item analysis was largely deemed to be satisfactory, therefore, further analyses were performed and are detailed below.

4.3. PARTIAL LEAST SQUARES (PLS) PATH ANALYSES

The PLS-SEM method was utilised to assess the relationships in the proposed model. SmartPLS version 3 software was used to perform the analyses. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the analyses of paths follow a two-step process by firstly evaluating the measurement model (outer model) and then the structural model (inner model).

4.3.1. Evaluation and interpretation of the measurement model

The role of reliability analysis is to examine the reliability of the measurement instruments and to examine the fit of the model. This will assist in understanding whether measurement instruments items measure the constructs they intend to measure. The evaluation and interpretation of the reliabilities for each latent variable were completed by examining the composite reliability and average variance extracted (AVE). In order to determine if the measurement instrument is reliable, the value for composite reliability is assessed. According to Wong (2013), a score that is greater than (>) .70 for composite reliability is viewed as satisfactory. As per table 4.2 below, all the latent variables' reliabilities were >.70 and therefore can be viewed as satisfactory.

According to Theron (2017), the AVE scores signal the amount of variance in the indicator variable that is explained by common factors. Scores that are ≥ .50 are satisfactory and point to the indicator variables measuring the appropriate latent variables (Pennstate, 2018). All latent variables achieved AVE scores of ≥ .50. Therefore, it can be said that all constructs explained more than 50% of the variance in the items.

Table 4.2

Reliability Statistics Of The PLS Measurement Model

Scale	AVE	α
Intention to quit	.87	.95
Burnout	.54	.94
Work engagement	.67	.95
Role overload	.52	.87
Negative HWI/WHI	.72	.84
Job characteristics	.55	.86
Positive HWI/WHI	.76	.86
Psychological capital	.74	.92

4.3.1.1. Discriminant Validity

A further test to establish construct validity is the analysis of discriminant validity. Through the calculation of the hetrotrait-monotrait ratio, discriminant validity can be determined. A confidence interval (CI) of 95% was used as the standard to interpret the scores. If a CI value of 1 is obtained, it indicates that the scales measure different things. In Table 4.3 below, if 'no' is indicated in the discriminant column, it suggests that there is a strong correlation between the variables and no discriminant validity. When analysing the results in Table 4.3, there is only one pairing, negative HWI/WHI and burnout, which is highly correlated and therefore appears non-discriminant. In terms of the other pairings, there are no constructs that are highly correlated, therefore, it can be summated that the constructs are unique and show discriminant validity. When there appears to be a lack of discriminant validity between variables, it is important to investigate any similarities. After scrutinising both negative HWI/WHI and burnout, similarities can be observed as both constructs have items that touch on exhaustion. Although they did not discriminate, changes were not made to the latent

structure and the variables were kept separate (M. Kidd, personal communication, November 28, 2020).

Table 4.3

Discriminant Validity

Scales	Original Sample	95% lower	95% upper	Discriminate
Intention to quit -> Burnout	0.52	0.4	0.64	yes
Job characteristics -> Burnout	0.22	0.14	0.28	yes
Job characteristics -> Intention to quit	0.31	0.14	0.5	yes
Positive HWI/WHI -> Burnout	0.45	0.28	0.62	yes
Positive HWI/WHI -> Intention to quit	0.37	0.22	0.53	yes
Positive HWI/WHI -> Job characteristics	0.13	0.04	0.22	yes
Psychological capital -> Burnout	0.41	0.27	0.56	yes
Psychological capital -> Intention to quit	0.3	0.18	0.47	yes
Psychological capital -> Job characteristics	0.59	0.44	0.72	yes
Psychological capital -> Positive HWI/WHI	0.49	0.33	0.63	yes
Role overload -> Burnout	0.72	0.62	0.81	yes
Role overload -> Intention to quit	0.27	0.13	0.43	yes
Role overload -> Job characteristics	0.19	0.15	0.21	yes
Role overload -> Positive HWI/WHI	0.2	0.08	0.28	yes
Role overload -> Psychological capital	0.15	0.08	0.19	yes
Work engagement -> Burnout	0.57	0.43	0.69	yes
Work engagement -> Intention to quit	0.52	0.36	0.64	yes
Work engagement -> Job characteristics	0.39	0.22	0.57	yes
Work engagement -> Positive HWI/WHI	0.36	0.21	0.56	yes
Work engagement -> Psychological capital	0.53	0.37	0.67	yes
Work engagement -> Role overload	0.27	0.16	0.4	yes
Negative HWI/WHI -> Burnout	0.92	0.83	1.07	no
Negative HWI/WHI -> Intention to quit	0.48	0.28	0.66	yes
Negative HWI/WHI -> Job characteristics	0.19	0.07	0.27	yes
Negative HWI/WHI -> Positive HWI/WHI	0.38	0.18	0.59	yes
Negative HWI/WHI -> Psychological capital	0.42	0.21	0.62	yes
Negative HWI/WHI -> Role overload	0.69	0.52	0.89	yes
Negative HWI/WHI -> Work engagement	0.49	0.31	0.64	yes

4.3.1.2. Outer Loadings

The final analysis of reliability was completed by conducting a PLS bootstrap analysis. Bootstrapping was completed in order to ascertain the significance of the item loadings. Factor loadings, used to determine significance, were assessed by identifying whether or not zero falls within the 95% CI. According to Middleton (2016), when zero falls outside the 95% CI,

the factor loadings can be interpreted as statistically significant. Conversely, where zero falls within the 95% CI, the factor loadings are viewed as not statistically significant. The strength of the relationship between variables and measurement items is represented in Table 4.4 below. Based on these results, it can be said that all the paths between items and their applicable variables are statistically significant. Therefore, the results confirm that the items within the various measurement instruments show reliability.

4.3.2. Evaluation and interpretation of the structural model

In order to evaluate the quality of the relationships between the latent variables used in the survey, an analysis of the structural model was performed. The aim of the PLS structural model analysis was to understand the degree to which latent variables were related to one another. According to Kidd (2020), a structural model is also termed the ‘inner model” as it determines aspects inside the structural model. The influence of exogenous variables on the endogenous variables was determined and reported, along with the endogenous variables' influence on one another. When analysing the structural model, multicollinearity needs to be completed, the R-squared values need to be evaluated, and an evaluation and interpretation of the main and moderating effects should be performed.

4.3.2.1. Multicollinearity

Upon completion of a regression analysis, a number of predictor variables are present, and the assumption is that all of the predictors are disassociated from one another. An unstable regression may occur when the predictors are too highly correlated with one another. Multicollinearity was assessed in this study using the variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF assesses the degree to which the variance of the estimated regression coefficients are inflated compared to when the predictor variables are not linearly related. Multicollinearity can be viewed as an issue as it can increase the variance of the regression coefficients which could make them unstable and difficult to interpret.

Table 4.4

Outer Loading

Latent Variable	Path	Original Sample	95% lower	95% upper	Significantfrom CI	p-value from T-test
Burnout	B1 <- Burnout	0.76	0.68	0.82	yes	<0.01
	B10(reversed) <- Burnout	0.47	0.32	0.61	yes	<0.01
	B11 <- Burnout	0.7	0.61	0.77	yes	<0.01
	B12 <- Burnout	0.63	0.51	0.73	yes	<0.01
	B13 <- Burnout	0.75	0.67	0.81	yes	<0.01
	B2 <- Burnout	0.73	0.64	0.8	yes	<0.01
	B3 <- Burnout	0.78	0.7	0.84	yes	<0.01
	B4 <- Burnout	0.77	0.68	0.84	yes	<0.01
	B5 <- Burnout	0.77	0.68	0.83	yes	<0.01
	B6 <- Burnout	0.7	0.61	0.77	yes	<0.01
	B7 <- Burnout	0.78	0.71	0.84	yes	<0.01
	B8 <- Burnout	0.83	0.77	0.87	yes	<0.01
	B9 <- Burnout	0.8	0.74	0.86	yes	<0.01
Intention to quit	ITQ1 <- Intention to quit	0.92	0.89	0.94	yes	<0.01
	ITQ2 <- Intention to quit	0.95	0.91	0.97	yes	<0.01
	ITQ3 <- Intention to quit	0.94	0.9	0.96	yes	<0.01
Job Characteristics	JDS_Autonomy <- Job characteristics	0.79	0.71	0.9	yes	<0.01
	JDS_Feedback <- Job characteristics	0.74	0.57	0.84	yes	<0.01
	JDS_Skill Variety <- Job characteristics	0.76	0.56	0.85	yes	<0.01
	JDS_Task Identity <- Job characteristics	0.79	0.61	0.86	yes	<0.01
	JDS_Task Significance <- Job characteristics	0.59	0.33	0.74	yes	<0.01
Negative HWI/WHI	Negative HWI <- negative HWI/WHI	0.81	0.71	0.88	yes	<0.01
	Negative WHI <- negative HWI/WHI	0.89	0.85	0.91	yes	<0.01
Psychological Capital	PC_Hope <- Psychological capital	0.92	0.89	0.94	yes	<0.01
	PC_Optimism <- Psychological capital	0.86	0.81	0.9	yes	<0.01
	PC_Resilience <- Psychological capital	0.81	0.73	0.87	yes	<0.01
	PC_Self Efficacy <- Psychological capital	0.84	0.77	0.89	yes	<0.01
Positive HWI/WHI	Positive HWI <- Positive HWI/WHI	0.78	0.51	0.88	yes	<0.01
	Positive WHI <- Positive HWI/WHI	0.95	0.9	1	yes	<0.01
Role Overload	RO1 <- Role overload	0.62	0.44	0.74	yes	<0.01
	RO2 <- Role overload	0.78	0.7	0.85	yes	<0.01
	RO3 <- Role overload	0.83	0.77	0.88	yes	<0.01
	RO4 <- Role overload	0.74	0.64	0.82	yes	<0.01
	RO5 <- Role overload	0.71	0.62	0.79	yes	<0.01
	RO6 <- Role overload	0.64	0.51	0.74	yes	<0.01
Work Engagement	WE1 <- Work engagement	0.8	0.73	0.86	yes	<0.01
	WE2 <- Work engagement	0.81	0.75	0.86	yes	<0.01
	WE3 <- Work engagement	0.89	0.83	0.92	yes	<0.01
	WE4 <- Work engagement	0.86	0.8	0.9	yes	<0.01
	WE5 <- Work engagement	0.85	0.8	0.89	yes	<0.01
	WE6 <- Work engagement	0.85	0.79	0.9	yes	<0.01
	WE7 <- Work engagement	0.8	0.73	0.86	yes	<0.01
	WE8 <- Work engagement	0.8	0.72	0.86	yes	<0.01
	WE9 <- Work engagement	0.71	0.55	0.81	yes	<0.01

There are various opinions on the levels that are accepted for VIF. According to Pennstate (2018), the most common recommendation for a maximum level of VIF is a value of 10. The VIF recommendation of 10 corresponds to the tolerance recommendation of .10 (i.e., 1 / .10 = 10). Other studies have recommended a maximum value of 5 and even 4 (Pennstate, 2018), however, this study viewed a maximum value of 5 or higher as problematic. All VIF scores were below 5, therefore, no problems were identified in terms of multicollinearity.

4.3.2.2. Evaluation and interpretation of the R-square

According to Chin (2010), the value of R-squared (R^2) signifies the predictive power of the structural model. Furthermore, the R-squared value gives an indication of the amount of variance in the endogenous variables that are explained by the exogenous variables (Chin, 2010).

Table 4.5

R-Square Scores For The Endogenous Variables

	R^2	**R^2 adjusted**
Burnout	.60	.59
Work Engagement	.43	.42
Intention to quit	.32	.31

The score for burnout was .60 and the work engagement score was .43. Therefore, 60% of the variance in burnout can be described by the effects of the exogenous variables. Furthermore, 43% of the variance in work engagement can be described by the effects of the exogenous variables. The intention to quit score of .32 is relatively low in comparison to the scores for work engagement and burnout. The score indicates that 32% of the variance in intention to quit can be explained by the effects of the exogenous variables. The low score for intention to quit could indicate that other variables have impacted the endogenous variables that are possibly not measured in this study.

4.3.2.3. Evaluation and interpretation of the main effects

According to Henseler et al. (2009), rather than testing the theories, PLS path modelling is used to enable prediction. Once the reliability of each latent variable scale was ascertained, path coefficients were investigated to understand the significance and strength of the hypothesised relationships. According to Middleton (2016), PLS path coefficients generally range between -1.00 and +1.00. If a value close to zero is obtained, this could mean that there is an absence of a relationship between the constructs. The bootstrapping method was utilised to determine the significance between the constructs. In an attempt to ascertain the path coefficients' significance, a 95% CI was used. Therefore, the corresponding coefficients will be viewed as not significant when zero falls within the 95% CI and vice versa.

Table 4.6

Path Coefficients Between Variables

Path	Path coefficient	95% CI lower	95% CI upper	Description	p-value from T-test
H1: Burnout -> Work engagement	-0.42	-0.57	-0.25	Significant	<0.01
H2: Burnout -> Intention to quit	0.33	0.18	0.47	Significant	<0.01
H3: Work engagement -> Intention to quit	-0.31	-0.48	-0.15	Significant	<0.01
H4: Role overload -> Burnout	0.36	0.25	0.47	Significant	<0.01
H5: Negative HWI/WHI -> Burnout	0.53	0.42	0.62	Significant	<0.01
H6: Psychological capital -> Work engagement	0.25	0.1	0.39	Significant	<0.01
H7: Positive HWI/WHI -> Work engagement	0.06	-0.08	0.23	Non-Significant	0.46
H8: Job characteristics -> Work engagement	0.13	0	0.3	Significant	0.08

In Table 4.6 above, it is clearly labelled whether the path coefficients were significant or not. An investigation was completed on the significance of the path coefficients and whether the hypothesised paths were significant was provided for each path.

Hypothesis 1: Burnout (η1) has a significant negative effect on work engagement (η2) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 1 was accepted. The hypothesised negative relationship between burnout and work engagement was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = -.42), with zero also falling within the 95% CI. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_{a1}: $\beta_{21} < 0$) was rejected. Additionally, the results indicated that the relationship was negative. This finding suggests that as burnout increases, working mothers will experience a decrease in their level of work engagement. Burnout and work engagement are generally viewed as two separate constructs and not dependent on each other. However, the results show burnout has a negative impact on work engagement. Therefore, working mothers that experience a high level of burnout could be less engaged than working mothers who are not suffering from burnout.

Hypothesis 2: Burnout (η1) has a significant positive effect on intention to quit (η3) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 2 was accepted. The hypothesised positive relationship between burnout and intention to quit was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = .33), with zero also falling within the 95% CI. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_{a2}: $\beta_{31} > 0$) was rejected. According to the findings, it is apparent that working mothers that experience burnout will have the intention to quit their job. Consequently, as the level of burnout increases for an employee, they will be more likely to quit their job. This could mean that working mothers will be more prone to actively seek other employment opportunities.

Hypothesis 3: Work engagement (η2) has a significant negative effect on intention to quit (η3) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 3 was accepted. The hypothesised negative relationship between work engagement and intention to quit was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = - .31), with zero also falling within the 95% CI. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_{a3}: $\beta_{32} < 0$) was rejected. The results clearly indicate that working mothers that are engaged in their work will not experience the intention to quit. Consequently, working mothers that are more engaged will be less likely to pursue alternate employment opportunities. Therefore, these employees will have a greater sense of commitment and investment in their organisations which will, in turn, discourage the development of turnover intentions.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant positive relationship between role overload ($\xi 1$) and burnout ($\eta 1$) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 4 was accepted. The hypothesised positive relationship between role overload and burnout was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = .36), with zero also falling within the 95% CI. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_{a4}: $\gamma_{11} > 0$) was rejected. This finding supports prior research that role overload has a positive correlation with burnout. Subsequently, as employees experience an increase in job demands (role overload), burnout will also increase. Therefore, working mothers will be more prone to experience burnout with the increasing roles that they have to juggle.

Hypothesis 5: Negative WH/HW interaction ($\xi 2$) has a significant positive effect on burnout ($\eta 1$) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 5 was accepted. The hypothesised positive relationship between negative WH/HW interaction and burnout was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = .53), with zero also falling within the 95% CI. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_{a5}: $\gamma_{12} > 0$) was rejected. A positive relationship was expected as it has been reported that a build-up of negative effects (either from the home or work environment) can spill over into the other domains which will subsequently influence the individuals functioning, leading to strain and eventually burnout. The results suggest that as job demands (negative WH/HW interaction)

increase, working mothers' burnout will also increase. The greater the negative interaction between the domains, the higher the level of exhaustion/burnout that will be experienced.

Hypothesis 6: Psychological Capital (ξ3) has a significant positive effect on work engagement (η2) among working mothers'.

Hypothesis 6 was accepted. The hypothesised positive relationship between psychological capital and work engagement was found to be statistically significant (PLS path coefficient = .25), with zero also falling within the 95% CI. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_{a6}: $\gamma_{23} > 0$) was rejected. This finding in the South African context, supports prior research. This result suggests that as personal resources (psychological capital) increases, so too will the engagement of working mothers. Therefore, higher levels of psychological capital (hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy) will translate into a higher level of work engagement that working mothers will experience.

Hypothesis 7: Positive WH/HW interaction (ξ4) will have a significant positive effect on work engagement (η2) amongst working mothers.

Hypothesis 7 was rejected. The hypothesised positive relationship between positive WH/HW interaction and work engagement was not found to be significant (PLS path coefficient = 0.06), with zero falling within the 95% CI. The null hypothesis was not rejected (H_{07}: $\gamma_{24} = 0$). The results of the study indicate that as job resources (positive WH/HW interaction) increase, it will not have an effect on working mothers' engagement. This finding is contrary to prior research conducted on the relationship.

Hypothesis 8: Job characteristics (skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback and autonomy) (ξ5) will have a significant positive effect on work engagement (η2) among working mothers.

Hypothesis 8 was accepted. The hypothesised positive relationship between job characteristics and work engagement was found to be statistically significant (PLS path

coefficient = .13), with zero also falling within the 95% CI. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_{a8}: $\gamma_{25} > 0$) was rejected. Therefore, as job resources (job characteristics) increase, work engagement among working mothers will increase. Consequently, working mothers that have jobs with a high level of task identity, skill variety, feedback, autonomy, and task significance will experience higher levels of work engagement.

4.3.2.5. Evaluation and interpretation of the moderating hypotheses

The path coefficients were used to assess the significance, direction and strength of the hypothesised moderating effects in the model. The significance of the path hypothesis is understood by whether zero is present between the values of the lower and upper confidence intervals. In an attempt to ascertain the significance of the path coefficients, a 95% CI was used. As seen below in Table 4.7, in some cases there are multiple path coefficients for the same hypothesis due to the fact that a number of models were fitted. This is as a result of it not being good practice to have more than one moderating effect on one path when conducting PLS-SEM (M. Kidd, personal communication, November 28, 2020), hence the reason for four separate models being fitted.

Hypothesis 9: Positive WHI/HWI ($\xi 4$) moderates the relationship between role overload ($\xi 1$) and burnout ($\eta 1$).

When the moderating effects of positive WHI/HWI on role overload and burnout were tested using PLS, it was found that the hypothesised moderating effect was not statistically significant. The PLS path coefficient was equal to 0.01, with zero falling within the 95% CI. This signifies that positive WHI/HWI did not statistically significantly moderate the relationship between role overload and burnout. The exact details regarding the lower and upper CI's are provided in Table 4.7 below.

Table *4.7*

Moderating Path Coefficients

Path	To	Path coefficient	95% CI lower	95% CI upper	Description	p-value from T-test
H9: RO*Pos →	Burnout	0.01	-0.08	0.1	Not Significant	0.87
H10: Neg*JC →	Burnout	-0.01	-0.09	0.1	Not Significant	0.85
H10: Neg*JC →	Burnout	0.03	-0.07	0.14	Not Significant	0.57
H10: Neg*JC →	Burnout	0.03	-0.11	0.19	Not Significant	0.73
H11: RO*JC →	Burnout	0.01	-0.14	0.14	Not Significant	0.9
H12: Neg*PC →	Burnout	0.04	-0.05	0.12	Not Significant	0.39
H13: RO*PC →	Burnout	0.17	0.02	0.28	Significant	<0.01
H13: RO*PC →	Burnout	0.19	0.08	0.29	Significant	<0.01
H14: JC*RO →	Work engagement	0.1	-0.07	0.25	Not Significant	0.23
H14: JC*RO →	Work engagement	0.1	-0.05	0.25	Not Significant	0.19
H14: JC*RO →	Work engagement	0.1	-0.07	0.25	Not Significant	0.21
H14: JC*RO →	Work engagement	0.1	-0.08	0.24	Not Significant	0.2
H15: Pos*RO →	Work engagement	-0.06	-0.19	0.09	Not Significant	0.42
H15: Pos*RO →	Work engagement	-0.06	-0.19	0.09	Not Significant	0.4
H15: Pos*RO →	Work engagement	-0.06	-0.19	0.09	Not Significant	0.42
H15: Pos*RO →	Work engagement	-0.06	-0.19	0.09	Not Significant	0.42

Note. RO = Role Overload; Pos = Positive WH/HW interaction; Neg = Negative WH/HW interaction; JC = Job Characteristics; PC = Psychological Capital

Hypothesis 10: Job characteristics (ξ5) moderates the relationship between negative WHI/HWI (ξ2) and burnout (η1).

When the moderating effects of job characteristics on negative WHI/HWI and burnout were tested using PLS, it was found that the hypothesised moderating effect was not statistically significant. The PLS path coefficient ranged from -.01 to 0.03, with zero falling within the 95% CI. Therefore, this indicates that job characteristics did not significantly moderate the relationship between negative WHI/HWI and burnout. The details on the lower and upper CI's are provided in Table 4.7.

Hypothesis 11: Job characteristics (ξ5) moderate the relationship between role overload (ξ1) and burnout (η1).

When the moderating effects of job characteristics on role overload and burnout were tested using PLS, it was found that the hypothesised moderating effect was not statistically significant. The PLS path coefficient was equal to 0.01, with zero falling within the 95% CI.

Subsequently, this signifies that job characteristics did not significantly moderate the relationship between role overload and burnout. The precise details regarding the lower and upper CI's are provided in Table 4.7.

Hypothesis 12: Psychological capital (ξ3) moderates the relationship between negative WHI/HWI (ξ2) and burnout (η1).

When the moderating effects of psychological capital on negative WHI/HWI and burnout were tested using PLS, it was found that the hypothesised moderating effect was not statistically significant. The PLS path coefficient was equal to 0.04, with zero falling within the 95% CI. This suggests that psychological capital did not statistically significantly moderate the relationship between negative WHI/HWI and burnout. The precise details of the lower and upper CI's are provided in Table 4.7.

Although the SEM results were found to not be statistically significant, the univariate analysis shows an interesting trend. Figure 4.1 below depicts a range plot of the moderating effect that high psychological capital has on the relationship between negative HWI/WHI and burnout when compared to low psychological capital. It appears that the positive relationship between negative HWI/WHI and burnout is stronger when psychological capital is high, as depicted by a steeper (red) curve, in comparison to when psychological capital is low, as depicted by the flatter (blue) curve.

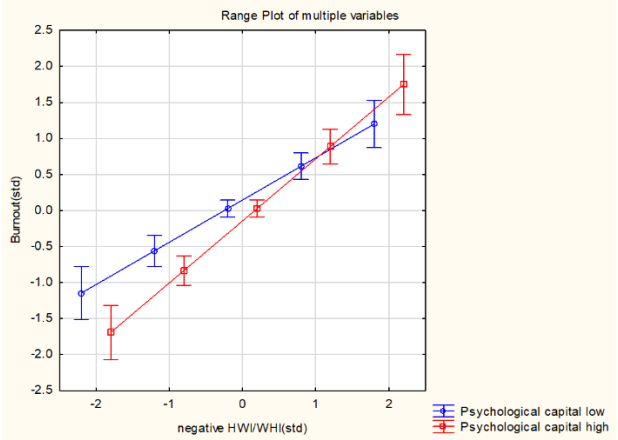


Figure 4.1. *Range plot portraying the interaction effect of psychological capital and negative HWI/WHI on burnout.*

Hypothesis 13: Psychological capital (ξ3) moderates the relationship between role overload (ξ1) and burnout (η1).

When the moderating effects of psychological capital on role overload and burnout were tested using PLS, it was found that the hypothesised moderating effect was statistically significant. The PLS path coefficient ranged from .17 to .19, with zero falling outside the 95% CI. This indicates that psychological capital had a statistically significant moderating effect on the relationship between role overload and burnout. Therefore, working mothers who possess high levels of the four psychological capital variables will influence the relationship between role overload and burnout. The exact details of the lower and upper CI's are provided in Table 4.7.

Additionally, Figure 4.2 below depicts a range plot of the moderating effect that high psychological capital has on the relationship between role overload and burnout when compared to low psychological capital. It appears that the positive relationship between role overload and burnout is stronger when psychological capital is high, as depicted by a steeper (red) curve, in comparison to when psychological capital is low, as depicted by the flatter (blue) curve.

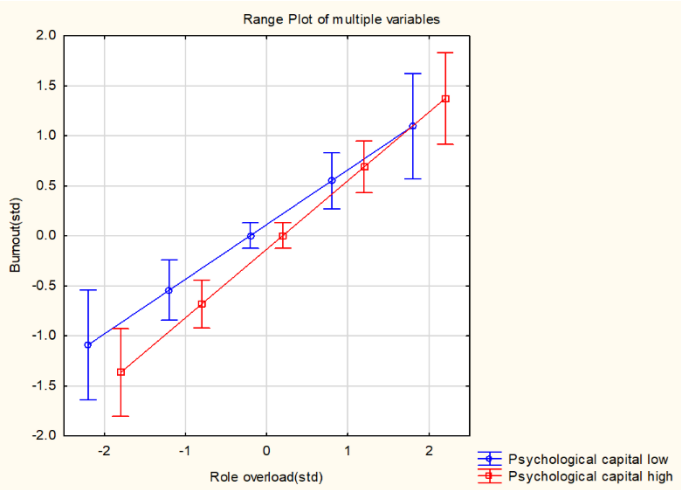


Figure 4.2.

Range plot portraying the interaction effect of psychological capital and role overload on burnout.

Hypothesis 14: Role overload (ξ1) moderates the relationship between job characteristics (ξ5) and work engagement (η2).

When the moderating effects of role overload on job characteristics and work engagement were tested using PLS, it was found that the hypothesised moderating effect was not statistically significant. The PLS path coefficient was equal to 0.1, with zero falling within the 95% CI. Therefore, this signifies that role overload did not statistically significantly moderate the relationship between job characteristics and work engagement. The exact details of the lower and upper CI's are provided in Table 4.7.

Although the SEM results were found to not be statistically significant, univariate analysis reveals an interesting trend. Figure 4.3 below depicts a range plot of the moderating effect, that high role overload versus low role overload has on the relationship between job characteristics and work engagement. Based on this figure, it is apparent that the positive relationship between job characteristics and work engagement is stronger when role overload is high, as depicted by a steeper (red) curve, in comparison to when role overload is low, as depicted by the flatter (blue) curve.

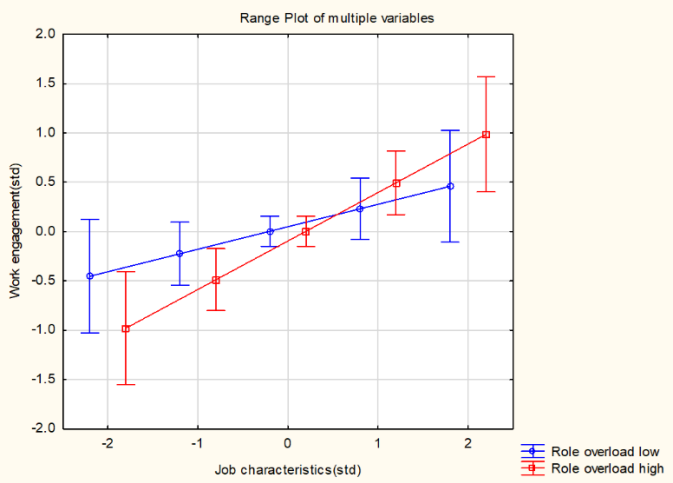


Figure 4.3.

Range plot portraying the interaction effect of role overload and job characteristics on work engagement.

Hypothesis 15: Role overload (ξ1) moderates the relationship between positive WHI/HWI (ξ4) and work engagement (η2).

When the moderating effects of role overload on positive WHI/HWI and work engagement were tested using PLS, it was found that the hypothesised moderating effect was not statistically significant. The PLS path coefficient was equal to -0.06, with zero falling within the 95% CI. This means that role overload did not statistically significantly moderate the relationship between positive WHI/HWI and work engagement. The detailed information regarding the lower and upper CI's are provided in Table 4.7.

Based on the above, Hypotheses 9 to 12 were all found to contradict the findings of prior research, which indicates that job resources will reduce the effect that job demands have on burnout (Bakker et al., 2014). This suggests that the relationship between job demands (role overload and negative WHI/HWI) and burnout experienced by working mothers is not weaker for those that possess a high level of job resources (positive WHI/HWI and job characteristics). Conversely, Hypothesis 13 concurred with the findings of prior research indicating that personal resources will reduce the effect that job demands have on burnout. Apart from Hypothesis 13, the first interaction buffering/moderating effect, as detailed in Chapter 2 does not appear to have any effect on the relationship between job demands and burnout. There could be a number of explanations for the insignificant paths. The results may have been affected by the small sample size that was attained by the study. Additionally, a limited amount of studies investigated the specific variables of interest and their resultant interaction effects. Therefore, it will be of value to conduct further research on the specific job and personal resources and their interaction/moderating effects.

The second interaction effects were tested by Hypotheses 14 and 15. As detailed in Chapter 2, the second interaction effect is when job demands amplify the effect that job resources and personal resources have on engagement. Both paths were found to contradict previous research on the moderating effect that job demands have on job/personal resources and work engagement (Bakker et al., 2014).

4.4.2.5. Additional significant relationships

It is important to note that additional paths were discovered that were not in the hypothesised model nor were they hypothesised. Both job characteristics and positive WHI/HWI were found to have statistically significant negative relationships with burnout. The additional paths could contribute to the expansion of the JD-R theory, where resources could have a strong direct negative relationship with burnout. These paths represent a significant new mechanism that employers can leverage to prevent burnout of working mothers, however, further research would have to be conducted on these additions. The path coefficients and lower and upper CI's are presented below in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Additional Path Coefficients Between Variables

Path	Path Coefficient	95% CI lower	95% CI upper	Significance
Job characteristics -> Burnout	-0.14	-0.28	-0.03	Significant
Positive WHI/HWI -> Burnout	-0.19	-0.29	-0.09	Significant

4.5. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to review and report on the results achieved from the statistical methods detailed in Chapter 3. As mentioned above, PLS-SEM path analysis and

bootstrapping were utilised to evaluate the data acquired. Item analyses of the different subscales were used to test the reliability and validity of the measurement (outer) model. An analysis of the structural (inner) model was completed in order to ascertain the significance of the relationships among the latent variables.

It was discovered that all measures used were both reliable and valid. Additionally, from the 15 formulated hypotheses, eight were found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence interval. The seven non-significant hypotheses were related to the moderating effects and the direct relationship between positive WHI/HWI and work engagement. A univariate analysis pointed to a significant relationship for two of the moderating hypotheses, however, the PLS-SEM results depicted a non-significant relationship. Chapter 5 will outline the findings of the study, management implications, and potential interventions that could assist managers. Additionally, it will touch on the limitations of the study and recommendations for research in the future within the field.

CHAPTER 5

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

An important role of an Industrial and Organisational Psychologist (IOPs) in any organisation is to positively influence the wellbeing of employees in order to increase employee performance and subsequently assist in the success of an organisation. In order to ensure the wellbeing of employees in organisations, it is vital that IOPs investigate, identity and understand situational factors that influence wellbeing. Additionally, a detailed understanding of how these factors interact and influence wellbeing is required. Therefore, this study concentrated on the effect that work engagement and burnout would have on the wellbeing of working mothers, and their intention to quit their job. This understanding was achieved through taking into account the different job demands they face, and the resources they have available to them to meet these demands.

As depicted by Bakker (2011), when reviewing the JD-R model, engagement and burnout are products of the relationship between job demands, resources and personal resources. Job demands are viewed as demands that require continual physical and psychological effort such as role overload and negative WHI/HWI. Conversely, job resources (positive WHI/HWI and job characteristics) and personal resources (psychological capital) assist in buffering against the demands experienced. This interaction effect can lead to a lower level of intention to quit.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the JD-R model can facilitate an interaction effect between the two different underlying psychological processes, the impairment process, and the motivation process (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Firstly, the impairment process arises when there are high demands (role overload and negative WHI/HWI) and a low level of resources to meet or buffer these demands. This can subsequently result in strain/burnout, which could lead to negative outcomes such as absenteeism, poor performance, and higher levels of

intention to quit (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). Secondly, the motivation process occurs when there is a wealth of resources (positive WHI/HWI, job characteristics, psychological capital) which can lead to work engagement. Therefore, a high level of demands without adequate resources to deal with these demands can lead to burnout. However, having a high level of demands, and an adequate number of resources to meet these demands will potentially create a more challenging job with higher levels of motivation (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). This can result in increased work engagement.

Chapter 1 contextualised the study and provided an overview of the research initiating questions and research objectives. Chapter 2 gave a comprehensive literature review for the variables of interest. Hypotheses were then derived from the literature and discussed. Chapter 3 entailed the relevant methodology, the sample and statistical analysis used in the study and ethical considerations. Chapter 4 detailed the results, scores, and outcomes of the hypotheses. Chapter 5 will now provide details on the implications of the study based on the statistical analysis and results put forward in Chapter 4. Reference will be made to the JD-R theory and the level to which the findings of this study are aligned with previous studies. The practical implications of the findings will receive special attention, as well as the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

5.2. FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

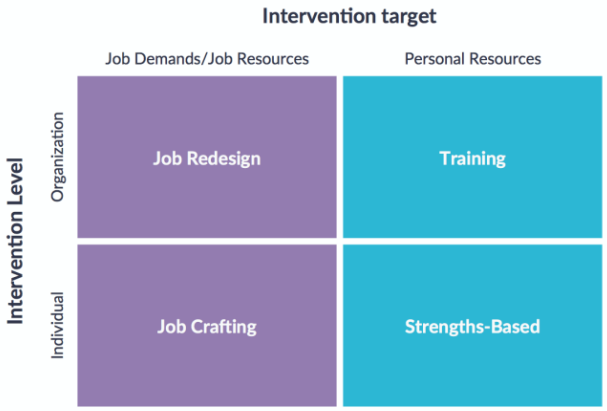
The main aim of this study was to test the structural JD-R model using the hypothesised relationships between the variables to understand the level of burnout, engagement, intention to quit, job demands, job resources and personal resources of working mothers. Additionally, the aim of the researcher was to bring attention to the results and implications of the outcomes in order to provide interventions for organisations that employ mothers. The aim of the interventions would be to manipulate the relevant variables in order to increase the well-being of working mothers. The research initiating question was: “Why is there variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers in South Africa?” From the 15 paths hypothesised, eight were discovered to be statistically

significant. Furthermore, one of the seven moderating effects was statistically significant. In this section, consideration will be given to the intervention strategies in line with the results achieved. These interventions have the potential to assist human resource managers and IOPs in the promotion of wellbeing within their organisations.

A number of JD-R studies show that the achievement of work engagement and peak employee performance occurs in challenging and resourceful work environments (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). This suggests that organisations should offer challenging jobs with sufficient resources to improve employee wellbeing and performance. Research has also shown that managers can have an effect on employees' job demands and resources, which can indirectly affect employee engagement and performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014; Nielsen et al., 2008). However, employees must learn how to mobilise their own job and personal resources, instead of solely relying on organisations. When employees have insufficient resources to deal with their job demands, it could result in burnout which could negatively influence the employee's wellbeing as well as the organisation. Therefore, intervention strategies should be aimed at the development of employee engagement and the reduction of burnout on both an individual and organisational level. According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), there are two types of intervention levels, the organisational level and the individual level. Figure 5.1 depicts the intervention target and intervention level which will be elaborated on in Section 5.2.1.

Figure 5.1

JD-R Interventions



Note. Retrieved from “Chronic job burnout and daily functioning: A theoretical analysis, *Burnout Research”* by A. B. Bakker and P. L. Costa, 2014, 1, 112-119.

5.2.1. Organisation-driven interventions

Organisation-driven interventions are targeted to a specific group of employees. Employers can execute these interventions during working hours. These interventions will aim to improve the well-being of employees and can help in the development of coping skills and strategies to meet job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). Bakker and Demerouti (2014) put forward two intervention categories at an organisational level: job redesign and training. Job redesign assists in influencing job demands and resources, while training influences personal resources.

5.2.1.1. Job redesign

The aim of job redesign is to reduce job demands and increase job resources. It is vital that job demands affecting employee performance are the focus, instead of demands that allow for challenging jobs and complement the resources at hand. Role overload and negative WHI/HWI were viewed as job demands in this study and were said to affect employee’s level of burnout.

The hypothesised relationship between role overload and burnout was discovered to be statistically significant. This result points to a strong positive relationship between constructs. Therefore, working mothers that experience a high degree of role overload will be more likely to experience increased levels of burnout. This result is in line with prior research (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Chawla & Sondhi, 2011; Yip et al., 2008; Kahn, 1978; Ahmad, 2010; Greenglass et al., 2003), which discovered that role overload negatively affects employee wellbeing through decreased job performance and satisfaction and an increase in individuals feeling emotionally drained and distressed. This relationship shows that working mothers regularly experience role overload. These findings reflect prior research, as working mothers

tend to experience role overload due to the multiple roles they have to fulfil in their home and work domains.

The hypothesised relationship between negative WHI/HWI and burnout was also found to be statistically significant. This was in line with prior research findings (Montgomery et al., 2003; Duxbury & Higgins, 1991; Dyrbye et al., 2011; Bacharach et al., 1991) which found that negative WHI/HWI resulted in increased health risks and withdrawal behaviour, as well as decreased career satisfaction. Therefore, the greater the negative interaction between the two domains, the more likely it will affect the wellbeing of working mothers, potentially resulting in them leaving their organisation.

Furthermore, the hypothesised relationship between job characteristics (job resources) and work engagement was found to be statistically significant. This is supported by a number of different studies (Agarwal & Gupta, 2018; Albrecht et al., 2015; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) that showed working mothers who have jobs that possess a variety of the five core job characteristics will be more engaged at work. Research has shown that employees that receive feedback, have autonomy in their job, can utilise multiple skills, identify with their job, and see the significance in what they do, will be more engaged.

Alternatively, the hypothesised relationship between positive WHI/HWI and work engagement was not found to be statistically significant. This is contrary to prior research findings (Mostert & Rathbone, 2007; Montgomery et al., 2003) and could be attributed to working mothers being stuck in a job where they are not necessarily happy, and due to the high unemployment rate in South Africa are unable to leave. It may also be due to organisations in South Africa having a culture of working long hours, which reduces the ability of working mothers to structure their work and family lives to achieve work engagement.

Based on the results it is clear that organisations need to focus on interventions that assist working mothers in dealing with the multiple roles that they have to fulfil. Additionally, organisations should consider interventions that promote positive interactions between work

and home. Lastly, organisations should implement interventions that focus on increasing the amount of skill variety, task significance, task identity, feedback, and autonomy in working mothers' jobs. These interventions will assist in reducing the level of burnout experienced by working mothers and increase the level of work engagement.

Job redesign is viewed as an intervention that can be used to decrease job demands, and increase job resources. According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), job design is defined as the way in which jobs, roles and tasks are structured, enacted, and adapted and how this influences outcomes within an organisation. Both organisations and individuals (managers/supervisors) can change a job, task, or condition of an employee's job through this intervention strategy. Job redesign can have a positive impact on employee wellbeing (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). When a job is redesigned, the structure and the content of the work can be changed by the organisation or employee. The main aim is to improve outcomes such as employee wellbeing, job performance and work engagement.

Based on the results, organisations need to identify working mothers that are experiencing role overload. However, as the experience of overload differs from one person to the next, organisations should look to introduce interventions that will assist working mothers in coping with what they experience. Coping is viewed as the cognitive and behavioural effort that individuals use to manage specific internal and external demands that are judged to be taxing or exceed the resources available to them (Yip et al., 2008). According to Yip et al. (2008), when individuals are under pressure due to role overload, having coping strategies weakens the stressor-strain relationship, thereby reducing the level of burnout. Coping strategies that could be used by working mothers include rational problem solving and seeking support/ventilation. These coping strategies could be taught to working mothers in order to reduce the effect of burnout and improve well-being.

Rational problem solving is an analytical and problem-focused approach that assists the individual in altering stressful situations (Yip et al., 2008). Yip et al. (2008) indicated that

rational problem solving is a type of active positive coping strategy that uses a constructive and direct approach to defining and solving problems. Seeking support/ventilation refers to the search for emotional support. This is where individuals express themselves mentally and/or physically (Yip et al., 2008). When receiving support or being able to vent, individuals are able to develop feelings of a better moral standing, which can assist in an improved state of well-being. Organisations can assist to alleviate the emotional response to job stressors by providing support through listening, being sympathetic to the issues of working mothers, providing a supportive work environment, and promoting strong relationships between supervisors and co-workers. Recreational activities can also be used by organisations to assist employees to ventilate mental stress.

Organisations can also look at implementing flexible work arrangements and family-friendly policies in order to reduce the impact of negative WHI/HWI on well-being. Organisations can implement initiatives such as flexible working hours, alternative work arrangements (job sharing and telecommuting), improved leave policies (providing more family responsibility leave) and the creation of a supportive and family-friendly culture. These interventions can assist in reducing the negative interaction between the work and home domains and assist in improving working mother's well-being.

Finally, organisations can conduct organisational surveys to ascertain which job resources and job demands working mothers would like to address in order to reduce burnout and increase work engagement. It is vital that the intervention begins with the assessment of the most serious job demands and resources that require attention.

5.2.1.2. Training as a means to increase personal resources

The training and development of employees is viewed as a vital role within the function of human resource management. According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), training assists employees in acquiring new skills, technical knowledge, and problem-solving abilities. The improvement of knowledge and skills could facilitate personal resources such as resilience,

optimism and self-efficacy (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). According to Peterson, Luthans, Avolio, et al. (2011), a positive change in supervisor-rated personal and financial performance was achieved when a positive change in personal resources occurred. Therefore, it can be said that personal resources are a malleable construct that can be used to increase work engagement and job performance.

The hypothesised relationship between psychological capital and work engagement was found to be statistically significant. This indicates that a strong positive relationship exists between the constructs. This is supported by previous studies that have evaluated the constructs (Herbert, 2011; Leiter & Bakker, 2010; Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Psychological capital consists of hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience. Individuals that possess high levels of self-efficacy or optimism may perceive or build more resources as a way to face more demanding situations (Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). Therefore, these findings show the significance of developing the psychological capital of working mothers through training interventions.

Luthans, Avolio, et al. (2007) created micro-interventions directed at the development of psychological capital elements such as optimism, hope, self-efficacy and resilience. They discovered that these interventions not only improved employees levels of psychological capital, but it also had an effect on the financial metrics of a company and resulted in a high ROI (Luthans et al., 2007). As mentioned above, psychological capital is viewed as a malleable construct that can be developed. Furthermore, there is a lot of positive psychology literature that shows the successful application of micro-interventions that assist in enhancing hope, optimism, self-efficacy and resilience (Luthans et al., 2007). The different micro-interventions for psychological capital will be detailed below:

- **Hope**: The hope constructs in made up of goal and pathway elements. The intervention strategy is normally one to three hours and begins with asking participants to create personally valued goals (Langehoven, 2015). Emphasis is placed on participants setting measurable goals and sub-goals in order to track

small wins on the path to achieving bigger goals. Once this phase has been completed, participants are tasked with developing multiple pathways to reach the goals they have set, this method is known as pathway generation. Once ideas have been brainstormed, participants split into small groups where they assist each other create more pathways to set goals, as well as ascertaining potential obstacles for those pathways. Lastly, participants can list their pathways and remove unrealistic pathways. Consequently, this process should result in working mothers being taught to take ownership of their personally valued goals and assist them in generating contingency plans, even when they are faced with obstacles they deem insurmountable (Luthans et al., 2007).

- **Self-efficacy**: The work of Bandura (1977) assisted in the development of self-efficacy training and is the most accepted and detailed intervention in training the four constructs (task mastery, modelling or vicarious learning, social persuasion and positive feedback and psychological and/or physiological arousal). The goals that were created in the hope intervention are built on in this intervention. The exercises include group role-playing, producing positive emotions, modelling accomplishment and success, and building confidence to produce and implement goals (Langehoven, 2015). The involvement of managers in these sessions is important as they can study how to facilitate the development of self-efficacy (Luthans et al., 2007).

- **Resilience**: The framing of personal setbacks is the intervention used to target resilience. Participants are tasked with recognising personal setbacks that recently occurred in their work environments and then look back at their immediate reactions (Langehoven, 2015). Participants are then guided through a process of understanding ideal resiliency, where they make sense of aspects that are both not in their control and in their control, as well as possible actions that they could have

taken (Langehoven, 2015). The resiliency intervention aims to reinforce learned cognitive processes that place emphasis on framing setbacks and creating plans in order to deal with and bounce back from difficulties (Luthans et al., 2007).

- **Optimism**: Interventions related to optimism mainly focus on elements addressed in hope, self-efficacy, and resilience training. The optimism intervention is completed through facilitators preparing a worst-case scenario exercise where participants are tasked with identifying the worst possible outcome of a situation. Subsequently, participants must identify proactive plans of action to deal with this worst-case scenario (Luthans et al., 2007). The facilitator concentrates on offsetting pessimism and backs the development of realistic and optimistic expectations about the future and emphasises positive self-talk (Luthans et al., 2007).

5.2.2. Individual-driven interventions

According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), individual-driven interventions are designed to capitalise on one's strengths. Each person has their own unique job and personal resources at their disposal. Additionally, the demands they are faced with may come in many forms such as social, economic, mental and spiritual demands. All of these factors can either directly or indirectly affect individuals in the workplace. Through the implementation of an individualistic approach, organisations can address some of these specific and unique issues experienced by employees. Organisations' could investigate the use of an internet-based version of the JD-R questionnaire where they provide personalised feedback to advise employees about their relevant job demands and resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008). Additionally, organisations can implement an intervention whereby the individual can increase their own job and personal resources and decrease their job demands through job crafting and strength-based interventions (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008).

5.2.2.1. Job crafting as a means to increase job resources and reduce job demands

Job crafting is typically started by the employee and is an individual-level intervention (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). Employees can have input on the design of their job by choosing tasks, changing job content and attributing meaning to their tasks. Job crafting could allow the individual to proactively change their job demands and resources. Crafting behaviour is initiated by the organisation by showing employees how to craft their jobs. This can be beneficial for both the employee and the organisation. Although the researcher did not consider job crafting as a latent variable in their structural model, it is an important intervention as it can increase work engagement and decrease burnout. Organisations could review certain aspects of working mothers' jobs and assist them in crafting their job suitably. When applied correctly, job crafting can be beneficial to working mothers. Therefore, it is vital that organisations educate working mothers on how they can craft their jobs.

A first departure point would be for managers to set up a training session to show employees how job crafting works and what it encompasses. Secondly, managers can assist working mothers in the development of their own crafting plan. Employees must be encouraged to craft their job in line with their passions and strengths. Working mothers can look at potentially using a number of different skills that are currently not being leveraged. They could also attempt to identify their role holistically in their organisations and try to derive significance from it. When developing their personalised crafting plan, employees can set job crafting goals and managers can guide and coach them in order to track their progress and offer feedback. This will not only assist in the development of working mothers but also assist managers in identifying where they could reasonably assist their subordinates. Practicing job crafting and the setting of goals would happen over a number of weeks. The crafting goals that working mothers would focus on would be to increase job resources, increase challenging job demands and decrease problematic demands. Finally, managers could have feedback sessions with the employees to assess the success, challenges and possible problems with their crafting plans. Again, this will provide managers with the knowledge of how to apply job crafting into their managerial role. Subsequently, this will assist managers in increasing the

job resources of their subordinates through their actions, for example, allowing working mothers to have autonomy and providing regular feedback.

5.2.2.2. Strength-based interventions as a means to increase personal resources

Strength-based interventions are aimed at the development of personal resources and are positioned at an individual level (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). According to Bakker and Demerouti (2014), individual strengths are positive traits that are revealed through thoughts, feelings and behaviours. Strength-based interventions occur between a manager and a subordinate, or a coach and an employee as it follows a more personalised, coaching approach. The nature of the approach results in employees being taken on a development journey where they begin to identify their strengths. Over a period of time, the employee is guided and assisted in exploring a variety of ways in which their strengths can be developed and applied in their work environment (Bakker & Demerouti, 2014). The strength-based intervention will assist employees in being more engaged at work as they will be guided on a path of personal growth and development.

Appreciative inquiry (AI) is a strength-based approach that is gaining popularity. “AI helps people to focus upon what is working well, the positive core, and identifying strengths by engaging them in inquiries and stories that highlight and then leverage those strengths” (Armstrong et al., 2020, p. 2). Verleysen et al. (2015) discovered that practicing AI can influence the experience and improvement of individual’s psychological capital through satisfying their innate psychological needs. The results in this study showed a significant positive relationship between psychological capital and work engagement. Therefore, organisations that employ working mothers can consider utilising AI practices in an attempt to increase their levels of psychological capital.

The 4-D Model of AI is often used by researchers to guide their change interventions. The model consists of four pillars: discovery, dream, design and destiny (Armstrong et al., 2020). In the discovery phase, workings mothers would explore experiences in relation to the

best of the past, in order to understand common strengths and core competencies that assist in success. They will then work in pairs to discuss and understand what gives life those high point experiences. These discoveries are then shared with the group in order to understand common life-giving factors. The dream phase will entail working mothers collectively envisioning positive possibilities for the future. The design phase will entail the creation of aspirational statements for each possibility and then design structures in which to achieve these statements. Finally, in the destiny phase, working mothers will work together to map out a path forward and make personal commitments to the preferred future they want to realise. Organisations employing working mothers should explore AI as it can assist in their personal development through heightened hope, optimism, resilience and confidence. AI is an alternative method whereby working mothers can increase their personal resources (psychological capital), which assists in creating new possibilities and effective systemic change.

Although strength-based interventions are beneficial in the form of mentoring and coaching, they can be very time-consuming and costly. While group sessions may allow for the intervention to be facilitated on a larger scale, this could detract from the impact that an individual session could have. Avey (2014) noted that strength-based interventions should be used as a form of leadership development, therefore, they may be better suited for more senior/executive level employees if there is the necessity for interventions at this level.

5.3. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study aimed to make key contributions to the field of industrial psychology. Although this was the aim, there were a number of limitations. These limitations in no way undermine the results achieved in Chapter 4, rather they serve as a means to guide future research.

Firstly, the study was conducted through an electronic survey that relied on self-reported data. This could have resulted in method bias which is typically associated with self-

report questionnaires, this can be viewed as a weakness. Therefore, in an attempt to present themselves more favourably, participants could have manipulated their answers. Exclusively utilising self-report questionnaires has been found to artificially influence correlations between predictors. As a result of the questionnaire not exploring impression management, it can be assumed that answering questions in a socially desirable way was high. Subsequently, it is recommended that for future studies objective measures of latent variables are used.

Secondly, due to the survey being in an electronic format, it limited access to individuals who do not have access to electronic devices such as laptops and smartphones to complete the survey. Additionally, the electronic survey was mainly distributed through the researcher's social media platforms, which limited responses to individuals who have social media accounts and have some sort of connection to the researcher. This resulted in 76% of the responses coming from individuals in the Western Cape, additionally, the majority of the responses were received from middle-aged working mothers. It appears that the study did not include blue-collar workers who do not have access to a laptop computer and/or who do not have electronic devices that could have been used to access the survey. Therefore, the results will be more of a reflection of the level of well-being of office-bound staff. It is recommended for future studies that if the research is conducted in specific industries, a paper-and-pencil format of the survey should be available for those individuals who do not have access to smart electronic devices. Additionally, if the research has no specific industry, researchers should assess alternative means to distribute the survey in order to achieve a more representative sample.

Thirdly, the researcher used a cross-sectional research design that collects the data at a specific point in time, which is viewed as a limitation. Due to the flexibility of resources and demands over time, it is recommended that future research considers using a longitudinal research design in order to collect data at a number of different points. This will assist the researcher in identifying behaviour patterns over a period of time, assisting them in drawing more definitive conclusions from the data.

Additionally, the researcher achieved a sample of 147 working mothers, which was satisfactory. However, a larger sample would have assisted in making the results more credible. Due to the time constraints already placed on working mothers and the length of the survey, it was assumed that working mothers found it hard to find the time to complete the questionnaire. Due to the limited size of the sample, this may cause issues with the generalisability and validity of the inferences made about working mothers as a population. The small sample size could be used as an explanation for the insignificant relationships between constructs that were previously found to have statistical relationships in other studies. Therefore, it is advised for future research that studies attempt to obtain a larger sample. Additionally, it is recommended that researchers look at a shorter survey that requires less time to complete.

Lastly, two constructs that form a part of the updated JD-R model (job crafting and self-undermining) were not considered in this study. Therefore, it is recommended that future research considers these variables and evaluates their contribution to the well-being of employees in the workplace.

5.4. DISCUSSION

The main objective of this study was to develop and empirically test a structural model that explains the antecedents of variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit among working mothers (based on the JD-R Model). Additionally, the researcher aimed to identify the most significant antecedents of variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit among working mothers. Lastly, the researcher wanted to highlight the results and managerial implications of the research findings and recommend practical intervention strategies for organisations in order to increase work engagement, decrease the level of burnout and decrease intention to quit amongst working mothers. Upon reflection of the objectives, the researcher can conclude that all of the research objectives were met.

The research initiating question asked, “Why is there variance in work engagement, burnout, and intention to quit amongst working mothers in South Africa?”

From the 15 hypotheses formulated in the study, eight were found to be significant. One of the non-significant paths was from the direct relationships, while the other six were due to the moderating effects. This could be due to a number of reasons, such as a small sample size. While some studies have touched on the moderating effects of these variables, more research could be completed with a more diverse population and greater sample size to possibly improve on the results.

In consideration of the proposed hypotheses, hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8 and 13 were found to be statistically significant, therefore supporting the JD-R theory. Hypothesis 1 assessed the relationship between burnout and work engagement, with the results indicating a significant negative impact on work engagement, which insinuates that as working mothers' burnout increases, their engagement will decrease. According to Schaufeli and Bakker (2004), burnout is viewed as the erosion of engagement, whereby energy will turn into exhaustion, involvement will turn into cynicism, and efficiency will turn into ineffectiveness. Importantly, the results obtained in this study support the notion of Schaufeli and Bakker (2004).

Hypothesis 2 tested the impact of burnout on intention to quit. The results indicated that burnout had a significant positive impact on intention to quit. This result is supported by Elçi, et al. (2018) who found that as the level of burnout increased amongst employees, the higher their intention to quit their job. Furthermore, Hypothesis 3 tested the impact of work engagement on intention to quit. The result showed that work engagement had a significant negative impact on intention to quit amongst working mothers. Therefore, as the level of work engagement increases, the less likely working mothers will want to leave their jobs. This finding is in line with research conducted by Agarwal and Gupta (2018) who also achieved a strong negative correlation between the variables.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 tested the impact of job demands on burnout. The results indicated that both role overload and negative WH/HW interaction have a significant positive impact on burnout amongst working mothers. This finding supports the JD-R theory which indicated that job demands are a predictor of burnout. Therefore, as role overload increases, burnout also increases. This finding was supported by Yip et al. (2008) who observed the same outcome. The impact of negative WH/HW interaction is supported by Montgomery et al. (2003) as they discovered that when a negative interaction between the two domains occurs, there is a subsequent increase in burnout. Research conducted by Dyrbye et al. (2011) found that as there was a reduction in work/home conflict, employees experienced reduced burnout.

Hypotheses 6 and 8 tested the impact of job and personal resources on work engagement. The results indicated that both psychological capital (personal resource) and job characteristics (job resources) showed a significant positive impact on employee engagement. This is supported by the JD-R theory that indicates that both job and personal resources influence engagement. In support of the above, Leiter and Bakker (2010) discovered that psychological capital was a key component in the development of work engagement. Albrecht et al. (2015) and Agarwal et al. (2018) revealed that job characteristics predicted work engagement. Therefore, working mothers who are provided jobs that are high on the five core job characteristics will experience higher levels of work engagement.

Hypothesis 13 tested psychological capitals moderating effect on role overload and burnout, which was considered the first moderating effect. The result was statistically significant and showed that psychological capital moderates the relationship between role overload and burnout. Therefore, psychological capital will influence working mothers' experience of role overload and negative WH/HW interaction through buffering the relationship with burnout.

Additionally, hypotheses 7, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14 and 15 were all found to be statistically non-significant and therefore did not support the JD-R theory as hypothesised. Hypothesis 7

considered the relationship between positive WH/HW interaction and work engagement. This means that as positive WH/HW interaction increases, work engagement will not increase. As indicated above, further studies should be conducted with a greater, more diverse sample in order to more accurately assess the relationship between the constructs.

Hypotheses 9, 10, 11 and 12 are considered first moderation effects. These four moderating hypotheses were found to be non-significant. Job characteristics and positive WH/HW interaction did not moderate the relationship between job demands (role overload and negative WH/HW interaction) and burnout. Psychological capital did not moderate the relationship between negative WH/HW interaction and burnout. These results contradict the proposed JD-R model put forward by Bakker and Demerouti (2014). Future studies that have a larger more diverse sample may result in more informative results.

Hypotheses 14 and 15 are considered second moderation effects and were found to present a non-significant moderating effect. This implies that when working mothers are faced with increasingly challenging demands, they would not moderate the relationship between job and personal resources and work engagement. These results contradicted other research findings (Bakker et al., 2014; Hakanen et al., 2005). This could be as a result of the high level of job demands that working mothers are faced with and the kind of resources considered in this study.

Based on the results presented above, it is clear that human resource managers/industrial psychologists, as well as line managers, should take note of the impact that increased job demands (role overload and negative WH/HW interaction) have on the levels of burnout amongst working mothers. Additionally, job and personal resources should be nurtured, as these can have a positive impact on employee work engagement.

5.5. CONCLUSION

Through the testing of the JD-R model and by exploring additional paths, this study has contributed to the further development of the JD-R theory. The study has also made

contributions to the understanding of burnout, work engagement and intention to quit amongst working mothers in South Africa. The reported findings have shown the influence that job demands, job resources, and personal resources can have on burnout, work engagement and intention to quit. Furthermore, these results have provided an understanding of how human resource managers, industrial psychologists, and line managers can better address the variables put forward in this study.

In conclusion, this chapter has provided managerial implications to address the issues that have become apparent from the results achieved. The interventions put forward can be implemented at both an organisational and individual level. Lastly, the limitations of the study were put forward and recommendations for future research were discussed.

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NOTICE OF APPROVAL

REC: Social, Behavioural and Education Research (SBER) - Initial Application Form

24 September 2020

Project number: 11506

Project Title: DEVELOPMENT AND EVALUATION OF A DEMANDS-RESOURCES MODEL FOR WORKING MOTHERS

Dear Mr Damian Perkins

Your REC: Social, Behavioural and Education Research (SBER) - Initial Application Form submitted on 31 August 2020 was reviewed and approved by the REC: Social, Behavioural and Education Research (REC: SBE).

Please note below expiration date of this approved submission:

Ethics approval period:

Protocol approval date (Humanities)	Protocol expiration date (Humanities)
17 September 2020	16 September 2021

Default	PCQ Permission	18/07/2020	1
Default	Revised Written Invitation 07 07 2020	18/07/2020	2
Letter of support_counselling	Doc1	29/07/2020	1
Informed Consent Form	Revised Informed Consent 30 08 2020	30/08/2020	4
Default	D PERKINS RESPONSE LETTER 30 08 2020	30/08/2020	1
Default	Revised Informed Consent 30 08 2020	30/08/2020	4
Default	Revised Survey D Perkins 30 08 2020	30/08/2020	5
Default	D Perkins Final Research Proposal	30/08/2020	5
Data collection tool	Revised Survey D Perkins 30 08 2020	30/08/2020	5
Research Protocol/Proposal	D Perkins Final Research Proposal	30/08/2020	4

GENERAL REC COMMENTS PERTAINING TO THIS PROJECT:

Call volumes on Lifeline can sometimes be high which means participants might not be able to access the service. Perhaps the applicant can give contact details of other support groups or services in addition to Lifeline. The reviewer found the following website which lists a number of free counselling services https://www.opencounseling.com/hotlines-za.

INVESTIGATOR RESPONSIBILITIES

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: SBE, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.

Please use your SU project number (11506) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD

You are required to submit a progress report to the REC: SBE before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

Once you have completed your research, you are required to submit a final report to the REC: SBE for review.

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za.

Sincerely,

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Social, Behavioral and Education Research